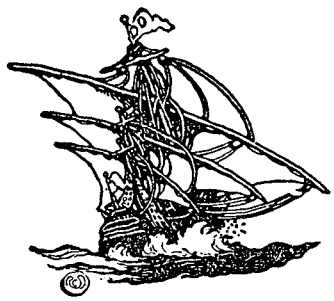
THE
SURVEY
MIDMONTHLY
JUNE 15, 1926



Behemoth Walks Again

Impressions of the National Conference of Social Work

By Geddes Smith

Prohibition: Wayne County Speaks Up

By W. J. Norton

COMMUNITIES
SOCIAL PRACTICE

HEALTH
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Analytic Index to This Number

June 15, 1926

Child Welfare:
- Prohibition and juvenile delinquency, p. 358
- Child labor laws in Austria, p. 374
- Child placing in the 'forties, p. 384
- Work of the juvenile courts, p. 384
- The home economists and child welfare, p. 391

Family Welfare:
- Welfare work for the ex-soldier, p. 382

The Law and Lawbreakers:
- The case of prohibition, p. 357
- The Sacco-Vanzetti case, p. 364
- Adult probation, p. 367

The Conquest of Disease:
- Financing an isolation hospital, p. 380
- A list of blood donors, p. 380

The Promotion of Health:
- Prohibition and health, p. 357
- The visiting nurse and the middle class patient, p. 377
- Requirements for food inspectors, p. 380
- A study of visiting nurse work, p. 380

Mental Hygiene;
- Psychiatric work among ex-soldiers, p. 382

Organizing Social Forces:
- The National Conference, p. 359
- Social measurements, p. 362
- Organization of ex-service work, p. 383
- Operation of speakers bureaus, p. 388

The Country Community:
- The changing rural situation, p. 375

Immigration and Race Relations:
- The immigrant in the rural community, p. 375

School and Community:
- The Dalton Plan in a girls' highschool, p. 368

Education Outside the School:
- Workers education at Oxford, p. 371
- A workers college in Mexico, p. 373
- Brookwood labor college, p. 374

Industrial Conditions:
- Investigation of conditions for working women, p. 366
- Timing the unorganized worker, p. 372
- Investigation of North Carolina mills, p. 374
- A conference on standardization, p. 374
- Group insurance for unorganized workers, p. 374

Industrial Relations:
- The Watson-Parker railroad bill, p. 366
- An investigation of strikes, p. 374

Social Invention in Industry:
- A super-power development in Russia, p. 374

Motives and Ideals:
- A revolution of thought in social work, p. 361
- Social work and democracy, p. 362
- The cause of truth in Massachusetts, p. 364
- What is the future of industry? p. 385

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THE SURVEY

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Vol. LVI, No. 6 June 15, 1926

CONTENTS

Prohibition: Wayne County Speaks - - - - - - - - - - - - *William J. Norton* 357
Behemoth Walks Again - - - - *Geddes Smith* 359
Sacco and Vanzetti - *Elizabeth Glendower Evans* 364
THE COMMON WELFARE - - - - - - - - 366
EDUCATION - - - - - - - - - - - - - 368
Experiment in Adolescent Training, *Lucy L. W. Wilson*
INDUSTRY - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 371
British Workers at Oxford, *Gladys Boone*—Timing the Unorganized Worker, *Max Kossoris*
COMMUNITIES - - - - - - - - - - - - 375
New Light on the Rural Situation, *Robert W. McCulloch*
HEALTH - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 377
One Way Out: An Answer to Some Problems of Private Duty Nursing, *Dorothy Deming, R.N.*—A New Way to Pay, *Edwin G. Eklund*—Life Blood, *Elwood Street*
SOCIAL PRACTICE - - - - - - - - - - 381
Surveying the Ex-Soldier, *A. W. McMillen*—Eighty Years Ago, *Ethel Verry*
BOOKS IN OUR ALCOVE - - - - - - - - 385
THE SOCIAL WORK SHOP - - - - - - - 388
COMMUNICATIONS - - - - - - - - - - 392

The Gist of It

IN his account of the prohibition hearings at Washington (The Survey May 15 1926) Dr. Emerson flung a challenge at social workers: "Do you . . . no longer concern yourselves with the greatest social experiment of our time and country?" Answering his question William J. Norton, secretary of the Detroit Community Fund, tells how the Wayne County Conference of Social Work tackled this thorny topic (p. 357).

The annual staff summary of the National Conference of Social Work appears on p. 359. Many personal details of kindred group elections and the like appear in Mr. Kenderdine's department on p. 390.

THE names of two Italians, Sacco and Vanzetti, have become attached to a cause célèbre, one which reaches deep into the roots of our American ideals and prejudices. Mrs. Evans who summarizes the progress of their case before our courts (p. 364) needs no introduction as a leader in social causes of Massachusetts and a particularly ardent defender of fair play in the case at issue.

EDUCATION that is "a continued and continuous making over of life at the time of learning, to ever higher and richer levels" means new and different education methods. Lucy L. W. Wilson describes on page 368 how these have been worked out in one particular school.

ON page 371 Gladys Boone tells of worker students at Oxford where miners from Staffordshire and Wales, shoemakers from Kettering and lace weavers from Nottingham study trade union history, utilitarianism, modern drama and the appr ciation of art.

MAX KOSSORIS, who gives his experience as a time-study man in a tannery, took his degree at the University of Wisconsin where he specialized in economics. He spent eighteen months with the Pfister and Vogel Leather Company of Milwaukee and later returned to Wisconsin where he is taking his master's degree this month (p. 372).

CONTRARY to the prevailing notion that rural America is losing ground against the city, Robert W. McCulloch, associate editorial secretary of the Institute of Social and Religious Research, has here (p. 375) analyzed hitherto unpublished census data which cuts the rate of city increase from 84 per cent to 52.1 per cent and pushes the rural rate of growth up to 20.7 per cent.

PUBLICITY for the Visiting Nurses is Dorothy Deming's solution for the problem of the public and the private duty nurse (p. 377): inform the community about this group of graduate nurses that are available for their needs. Miss Deming is director of the Visiting Nurse Association of Holyoke, Mass.

EDWIN G. EKLUND of the Springfield, Illinois, Council of Social Agencies tells of the cooperation between that organization and the two hospitals of the city which resulted in the financing and building of a modern fireproof isolation hospital for Springfield (p. 379).

ELWOOD STREET gives an account (p. 380) of the St. Louis movement to make available a centralized list of blood donors for the transfusion of blood.

THE results of a series of surveys of work for ex-service men made by Pacific Coast chapters of the American Red Cross are set forth (p. 381) by A. W. McMillen, special field representative of the A.R.C. One outcome has been an increased understanding of the need of the ex-service men for

MODERN child placing ideas are not only of today. Ethel Verry tells of the work of Pastor Bräm in Neukirchen, Germany, in the forties, where he endeavored to carry out some of the principles to which present day agencies subscribe (p. 384). Miss Verry was with the New England Home for Little Wanderers for two years and is now doing graduate work at the University of Chicago.

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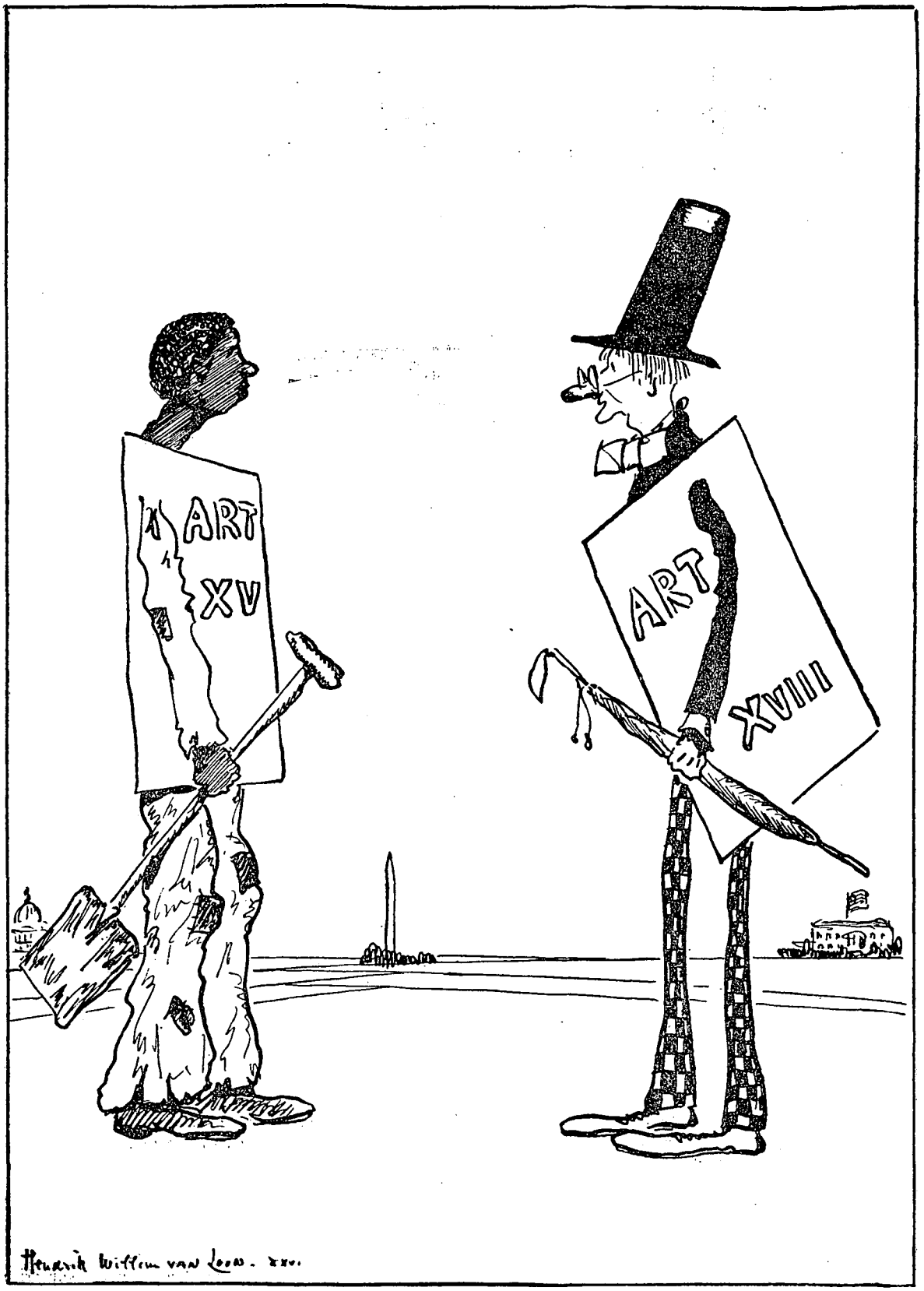

Drawn by Hendrik Willem Van Loon

—AND NEITHER ENFORCED

ARTICLE XVIII: Last year they spent thirty million dollars on me!

ARTICLE XV: That sure is fine, boss! Last year they did not spend thirty cents on me.

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THE SURVEY
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June 15
1926

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Prohibition: Wayne County Speaks

By William J. Norton

THE riddle of the Sphinx is no more difficult than the riddle of prohibition today. At least that is the conclusion which Detroit's social workers reached after devoting the entire time of their Fourth Annual Wayne County Conference of Social Work to an examination of the effect of the Eighteenth Amendment and the Volstead Act as shown by various sociological data collected from local institutions and departments dealing with dependency, delinquency, and insanity. A university president who is an analytical scientist; a bishop of the church who is president of the Anti-Saloon League of America; a juvenile court judge whose fearless and whole hearted devotion to children is known throughout the country; a distinguished circuit court judge who, as a legislator voted to adopt the Eighteenth Amendment, and as a congressman voted for the Volstead Act, and who now grieves somewhat over his votes; a psychiatrist who has been superintendent of an excellent insane asylum for many years; a divorce proctor; a superintendent of a large county infirmary; a superintendent of police who has tried to enforce the law in a border city; a public health statistician; and the employment manager of a great factory: all these offered their evidence at the shrine of truth in Detroit on May 20 and May 21.

Statistic was piled upon statistic, until the figures, which our immature judgment had presumed would be facts, laid end to end, would have circled the city. One clear truth, and one only, came out of the laborious welter of arithmetic. From 1918 when Michigan went dry through 1920 there was an enormously sharp decline in the incidence of alcoholism, in insanity, dependency and delinquency. Since 1920 there has been a steady march upwards from the low level of that year, which while still rising has not yet reached the levels of 1917, the last year before prohibition began in Michigan. The meaning of even this fact is not as clear cut as it seems, because of the absence of nearly 100,000 men under arms during the war years, and because of the great prosperity and ardor of the people in the national crisis of that time.

As for the rest of it, well—if you were dry before the conference began, probably you would not need an umbrella as a result of it; and if you were wet, you probably would keep on dripping. Two uncontrollable disturbances from the high pressure altitudes conspired to upset the calculations. Although the array of quasi-scientific information was unusually good, far better than was anticipated, the sorry truth is there was no science about it. The naked figures were there and they were accurate, but they either pointed nowhere at all, or else they were beset by so many qualifications, that you might interpret them as you pleased. The second disturbance arose from the fact that the post-prohibition figures were taken from years when the nation has been the wettest it probably ever will be so long as it retains the constitutional amendment against liquor. The bravado is going out of the rebellion according to the evidence of both wet and dry; and the contest is settling down to a more clear cut fight between two earnest and determined camps.

Dr. Christian of the Pontiac State Hospital for the Insane reported that for many years prior to the intense industrialization of Michigan, commitments because of alcohol constituted about 5 or 6 per cent of all admissions. In 1915 the proportion started a rise that reached 11 per cent in 1917. Next came a drop in successive years which touched the low level of one per cent in 1920. Then an upward tendency again carried the figure to 5 8/10 per cent in 1926.

"If the brief analysis of data can lead to conclusions," he says, "the following would seem to be justified:

The decline in alcoholic admissions, setting in in the year of prohibition enactments, was attributable to causes other than prohibition.

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The almost continuous increase since July 1, 1920, even to a point on a level with 1912 and prior, would indicate that prohibition legislation and activities have not sufficed to curtail alcoholic admissions in this district.

G. Arthur Blakeslee, statistician for the Detroit Board of Health, showed the rates for certain causes of death that might reflect the results of the restriction of alcoholic drinks from "an unbiased viewpoint." The general death rate declined from 15.2 per one thousand population in 1916 to 10.9 in 1925. The rate for deaths from alcoholism (wood alcohol excluded) dropped from 16.6 in 1916 and 1917 to a low point of 1.6 in 1919, and rose to 11 in 1923, only to drop to 8 in 1925. Cirrhosis of the liver, commonly thought to be caused by alcohol, dropped from 19.5 in 1916 to 7.5 in 1925. Suicides and deaths from falls showed a fluctuation slightly downward in tendency; deaths from other accidents a marked decrease with a slight upward sweep in the last three years; homicides a decided upward curve; diseases of the arteries and acute poisonings a slight downward slope.

Mr. Blakeslee sums up by noting the downward trend of mortality in recent years:

While this decrease might be attributed in part to the coming of prohibition, extreme caution must be exercised in deducting the evidence from the mortality data because of several other factors.

The Wayne County Infirmary admissions showed that alcoholics contributed the following percentages of the total admissions: 1917—26 per cent; 1918—5 per cent; 1919—2 per cent; 1920—2.5 per cent; 1921 and 1922—no record; 1923—9 per cent; 1924—11.2 per cent; and 1925—10 per cent.

One of the interesting fragments of information was contributed by Judge Henry S. Hulbert of the Juvenile Court, who said that his problem had completely changed in the years between 1912 and the present. In the earlier year the delinquent girls coming to him were blasé and hardened victims of older men who met them in dance halls then selling liquor illegally. Now the girls are less mature in wordly affairs and are delinquent because of association with boys of their own age who carry flasks. On the other hand, the boys of 1912 were small fellows who had committed some minor offense, while the delinquent boys of today are much older, much tougher, and not infrequently engaged in some aspect of liquor distribution. Fewer present day delinquent children are addicted to the use of alcohol; but about the same relative proportion of their parents use it.

Edward Pokorny, Friend of the Court, who acts in the general capacity of domestic relations adjuster of the Wayne County Circuit Court, presented a study of the part alcohol played in two hundred and fifty cases of divorces for 1915 compared to a similar number for 1925. The similarity between the two years was marked in so far as one could detect the influence of liquor. Mr. Pokorny's own conclusion was that no deduction relating to prohibition could be made.

Superintendent William P. Rutledge of the Detroit Police Department gave a set of figures that were startling if not unexpected. In 1918, 23,385 quarts of liquor were confiscated. This quantity, while less in 1919, went steadily up until in 1925 it reached a total of 3,138,242 quarts. In 1918 1,275 persons were arrested for liquor law violations; in 1925, 27,183. Of those violators for whom warrants were issued in 1918, 43 per cent were convicted; and 45 per cent in 1925. The arrests for drunkenness had fluctuated from a high mark of 19,327 in 1917 down to a low level of 6,599 in 1920 and up to 16,298 in 1925. This means that 27 per one thousand of the population were arrested as drunk in 1917, and 13 per one thousand in 1925.

Chalkey S. Slack, manager of the Cooperative Department of the Studebaker Corporation, reported the findings of an inquiry among the employment managers of the larger factories of the Detroit area. Six factories reported a greater labor turnover since prohibition; 9 less; and 10 were in doubt. Eleven reported greater regularity of attendance at work; 13 worse attendance; and 1 in doubt. Seven reported more tardiness; 9 less; and 9 were in doubt. Two reported more accidents; 11 less; 12 were in doubt. Seven reported better health among workers; 11 worse health; and 6 were in doubt. Eleven thought the worker a better producer; 12 thought he was not; and 2 were noncommittal. Six reported fewer appeals for charity from workers; 3 more appeals; and 13 were in doubt. Seven thought there were more home owners as a result of prohibition; 10 thought not; and 5 were in doubt.

Mr. Slack's general conclusions were that prohibition was too recent an experiment to make possible any deductions in regard to benefits to industrial workers, and that too many confusing factors entered into the question. A general impression prevailed among employers that prohibition had been useful to workmen although their evidence was not forthcoming.

It remained for President Clarence Cook Little of the University of Michigan, innocently enough, to swing the conference out of its colorless quest for facts into a good old fashioned wet and dry contest. He started by declaring that as long as prohibition was a law, that law would be enforced to the best of his ability at the University. Then he defended the morals of the college youth of today, testifying that they were clean as compared to the past, and, true to his training as a biologist, swung into a cold blooded analysis of the benefits and defects of prohibition as it is practised. And then—well, he declared for the open mind, saying that he was confused himself on the issue, sometimes leaning one way and sometimes another, and pleaded for research and painstaking study to find the facts to help the doubters to see their way.

This was too much for the partisan. The irreconcilable cannot understand the high courage of a fine spirited, clean-cut public man who says frankly that the whole issue troubles him, that he cannot sift from the mountain of words, enough facts and truths to reach a moral conclusion that is framed not only by emotion, but also by the God-given and little exercised intelligence. Bishop Thomas Nicholson, who was to sum up the evidence as a dry saw it, threw everything aside, to express himself in no uncertain terms about "a president trying to raise jelly-fish scholars with no morals or settled convictions" and "a man trying to balance water on both shoulders." This led him naturally enough to discard the poor little shreds of evidence on either side that had been so laboriously produced, and to launch into an excellent prohibition phillippic. And Judge Vincent Brennan, who really had sifted the evidence and expected to produce a few slender rails upon which the wets might rest their feet, forgot most of his evidence, defended the president, and gave an excellent oration against prohibition.

The best laid plans of mice and men! After all perhaps these gentlemen are right just (*Continued on page* 393)

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Behemoth Walks Again

Impressions of the National Conference of Social Work

By Geddes Smith

AT 7:30 a.m., Cleveland time, on Friday May 28 the executive committee of the National Conference of Social Work met for breakfast, and business.

At 8 the American Association of Social Workers and the National Association of Travelers Aid Societies met for breakfast and discussion.

At 9 eight groups of delegates met to discuss Child Dependency, Public Health and the Federal Government, Problems of the Handicapped, Social Insurance and Charitable Relief, The Family as an Institution in Modern Society, The Relation of Community Work to Family Life, Public Supervision of Private Organizations, The Naturalization Law and its Administration, State Aided Immigrant Education, Community Programs and Cooperation in Americanization Work, and The Development of Leadership in Social Work.

At 11 four groups met to discuss The Approach to the Problem of Delinquency, The Backgrounds of a Family's Religious Life as Social Data, The Development of Personality through Religious Experience, Types of Clinical Service Available to Children's Agencies, The Kind of Service Children's Agencies Need, The School and the Social Worker, and Year Round Publicity for Federation Groups.

At 12:15 p.m. the Mothers' Pension Bureau met for luncheon.

At 1 the Child Study Association, the Child Welfare League, the Cuyahoga County Council of Desertions, the National Federation of Day Nurseries, the Parish Workers' Council, Division 10 of the Conference, and the National Tuberculosis Association met for luncheon.

At 1:15 the handful of remaining delegates who were interested in the way the Conference ran its own primary business of conferring met for luncheon.

At 2 the National Federation of Day Nurseries, the National Association of Visiting Teachers, the American Association for Organizing Family Social Work, the Jewish Social Service Bureau, the Girl's Protective Council, and the American Association of Hospital Social Workers met for discussion and business, the Child Study Association held a public conference on parenthood, and the Baptist Home of Northern Ohio opened its doors for the diversion of such delegates as were not otherwise engaged.

At 2:30 the American Association for Community Association held a clinic on year-round publicity for federation groups, for those who had not heard enough about the same subject at 11, the American Country Life Association, the Committee on Publicity Methods, the National Association of Travelers Aid Societies and the Home Economics Group held meetings.

At 3 the Red Cross Teaching Center of Cleveland and the Junior League also held open house, the Cleveland Playhouse held a seminar, the Unitarian Church served tea for Unitarian social workers.

At 3:30 the American Association of Hospital Social Workers held a round table (this being the approved designation for a discussion at which more than one person is expected to discuss).

At 4 the Child Welfare League met, Mr. and Mrs. Newton D. Baker gave a tea for Mrs. Florence Kelley, the Cleveland Child Guidance Clinic held an open case conference, and St. Barnabas' Guild served tea for nurses.

At 4:30 the American Association for Organizing Family Social Work held two meetings and the School of Applied Social Sciences served tea.

At 6 the Men Secretaries of Family Agencies met in what was distinctly labeled a private dining room, and the American Association of Social Workers, the American Association for Community Organization, and Committee on Publicity Methods in Social Work also met for dinner.

At 8 there was a "general session" on The Present Social Aspects of the Coal Industry.

At 10 Conference Playland opened its doors for bridge and dancing until midnight.

At 10:30 past and present Minnesota people met for a "jollification." The northern stock is hardy.

THIS is what is known as a National Conference of Social Work. Thus Behemoth marches round the walls of Jericho daily for a week. Since the National Conference assumes no responsibility for its "kindred groups" and the kindred groups assume no responsibility for the conference or for each other, the tout ensemble is nobody's business.

Small wonder, therefore, that the president of the National Conference part of the national conference, Gertrude Vaile, should make the burden of her inaugural address a plea, in the words of the prophet Ezekiel, for the spirit of a living creature in the wheels. Small wonder that a veteran journalist of Detroit who had not previously been exposed to the efflorescence of this annual occasion should write home to the News:

> Contemplating the maze of this complicated, divided, subdivided, ramifying—and edifying program, the dazzled delegate gets the first impression that the field of social work in the United States either is too extensively cultivated, or that its broad acres, small lots, back corners, alleys and by-paths need reorganizing into main highways and better defined areas, all correlated in a manner not, at present, apparent.

Small wonder that the present reporter, dazed by a week's struggle to discover the Conference in the welter of conferences, should fall back on personal impressions which must be fragmentary and may well be faulty.

The first of these impressions is that, meeting in Cleveland, this fifty-third annual session had the comfort-

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able temper of a home-town reunion. Washington was the conference on parade. Providence—well, nobody without Yankee blood is ever quite at home in New England. Toronto was an international gesture. Denver was a journey into the frontier, where the Ku Kluxes were still brandishing the tomahawk. But Cleveland is a place where social work of a modern sort, and especially the organization of social work, has long been respectable; where press and public have been taught to take social planning somewhat for granted; where the lion and the lamb lay down together years ago and the dove of peace hovers quietly over them.

Naturally, then, the conference was entertained with distinguished success. Cleveland had a reputation to sustain and did so. The machinery ran in oil. Exceptional courtesies were shown to the officers of the Conference. Twelve hundred Clevelanders became personal members of the organization and helped to fill its coffers. An art museum was opened for a president's reception which, with its simultaneous diversion for eye, ear and toe, was the culmination but by no means the sum of a generous program of recreation. And though Cleveland knew her own place, and rated the importance of the conference (quite accurately) as somewhat below the level which would justify the use of the monumental Public Auditorium, (except for the Sunday meeting) the newspapers carried front-page stories, a huge conference emblem dominated the busiest corner in town, and the Conference was a booming success.

THE second of these impressions—and, I admit, a tenuous one—is that the fact of meeting in Cleveland gave a touch of piquancy to what was perhaps the underlying motif of the conference. That, I take it, was a half-conscious recognition of the fact that the old integrating ideals of social work are slipping away, and that so far no group in an increasingly parochial profession has found a substitute for them—certainly none which satisfies the other groups. Cleveland is the classic example of the federated city. Federation, though well past the stage of being hailed as a panacea or snubbed as a fleeting Babbitry, is beginning to be judged on its record. That record raises fundamental questions which are being faced frankly and seriously by the more mature federations and are being widely discussed by the leaders of other social agencies. Some of those questions, in spite of local and largely superficial complications, had been vividly illustrated by the recent debacle in Columbus (see The Survey, May 15, p. 261). It might have made the Cleveland conference more exciting and also more clarifying if these and other questions involving federation had broken through into public discussion. But the hosts of the conference and their guests were too polite to be argumentative; the conference program gave almost no opportunity for a rounded presentation of Cleveland's experience or for cross-examination and criticism of that experience. One sensed, rather than observed, that the issue lay behind what was said.

But I think it would be a mistake to localize the unrest in social work in this particular issue of federation and group initiative. Where it exists at all (and unrest is always a function of the minority) it seems to me to involve wider uncertainties. Two facets of the situation are suggested by events in social work since the Denver conference a year ago. One is the retirement of Owen R. Lovejoy. That marked a notable break in the ranks of the group which succeeded to the leadership of social work after the turn of the century and which in general still dominates the social thinking of social practitioners. It raised sharply the question, already heard in more than one quarter, as to the source from which their successors are to come.

Another is the parlous condition into which the federal child labor amendment seems to have fallen. At Denver, though the political tide was running strongly against it, it was a topic for public debate at the conference. At Cleveland it had all but disappeared from the program outside the section on children. It raised its head at a luncheon held by the American Association of Social Workers for Owen Lovejoy, but there the personal affection for a man seemed far to outweigh the interest in the cause.

The point is debatable, but I believe there is at the moment, in the minds of social workers, either some distrust or some indifference toward what has hitherto been the long arm of American social work—social legislation. The conference made room for one major discussion of that topic: Justice M. B. Rosenberry of the Supreme Court of Wisconsin expressed the opinion that we already had too much legislation, and implied that more of the ends sought by the public conscience should be accomplished by what he called "obedience to the unenforceable"—that is, extra-legal social pressures. Indeed a touch of nervousness about the place of legislation in a social program might have been deduced from the quite unreasonable passion with which a modest and constructive presentation of the possibility of regularizing employment through engineering methods was greeted in one of the industrial meetings. The speaker, Percy S. Brown, president of the Corona Typewriter Company and of the Taylor Society, remarked that the regularization of employment was a more American procedure than legislative remedies for unemployment. For this he was roundly scored by several speakers from the floor in one of the few brisk debates of the week. All but ignoring the contribution of the engineer-technician to the ends they themselves sought, they sprang to the defense of legislation in a hair-trigger fashion which, the psychiatrists tell us, usually rises from an interior insecurity.

Against this must be placed the fact that the incoming conference president, John A. Lapp, made at an evening session a ringing statement of his own faith in social action by legislation, in civil liberty, in full and complete enforcement of prohibition, and in social justice, including the child labor amendment, and was heartily applauded for it. Yet all these causes languish and social workers as a group are not saying much about them.

But the traces of uneasiness as to leadership and as to methods of social control are in turn symptomatic of a still deeper insecurity. Social work, if the conference at Cleveland is a fair cross-section of it, has lost its emotional authority. It hesitates to proclaim itself now (except for campaign purposes) as pure altruism. It has lost its direct connection with the church. It has not yet attained the coherence and solidarity of a profession with its own sufficient traditions. It is not sure of its relation to the emotional storehouses of the class struggle, or of experimental democracy. It has hardly assimilated its own scientific premises with sufficient thoroughness to be greatly moved by scientific enthusiasms. It has become too practical to be passionate. But the old emotional impulses linger. The older social workers are troubled by their evident weaken-

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ing. The younger ones are too busy to reason why. There is an unstable spiritual equilibrium.

Such at least seemed to me to be the background against which Gertrude Vaile opened the conference with a thoughtful review of Some Significant Trends Since Cleveland 1912. "A whole revolution of thought in social work," she said, "has taken place since the first meeting [of the conference at Cleveland] in 1880 and even since the second in 1912." She continued:

As Judge Mack pointed out in his presidential address in 1912 the emphasis in 1880 was all upon alleviation of distress, correction of wrong doing. In 1912 it was upon prevention. The social conditions that make for poverty, inefficiency and crime must be removed. . . .

And yet another note was beginnig to be heard. President Mack said, "For some years we have been passing the age of mere preventive work. The eradication of evil is not enough—constructive philanthropy demands that it be replaced by the positive good.

The most outstanding developments since President Mack spoke seem to me to be:

First, the clarifying and widening of that ideal of positive good as our goal.

Second, the gathering together of our resources and efforts toward our goal in ever larger and more far-reaching organization.

Third, the realization, still a recent one, that large scale organization has brought with it important new problems of organization and leadership.

It was to these new problems that Miss Vaile particularly addressed herself. She said in part:

Important as it is to carry our message to a wide constituency, I believe it is even more important to develop a strong inner group of people who are so close to the work and devoted to the cause that they think about it, talk about it, labor for it in season and out.

It is the lack of sufficient sustaining strength in that inner group that has caused the breakdown of much good social work even when there seemed a wide general interest in it.

Turning to the problem of leadership, Miss Vaile continued:

In the past we have had great leaders, outstanding individual pioneers. They have been inspiring figures in this Conference and have had profound influence upon the thought of the country and the trend of social work. . . . Not all of these leaders were great executives. They were great seers and crusaders. . . .

Whether more such leaders will rise up to follow these I am rather doubtful. Perhaps our present form of organization calls for a different type of leadership. The whole host of social work has now, through organization and the labor of many, moved forward to occupy positions to which the great leaders heroically blazed the way. In the new order social leadership does not stand out in the same way. Indeed we find in positions of organization leadership persons of executive powers who may or may not have any powers of social insight and leadership. . . .

With us there is leadership, often of remarkable quality in its human insight and power, in inconspicuous places. . . .

I wonder whether our unique problem is not the development of a widely diffused decentralized leadership throughout the organization, and the devising of means by which it can be effective.

Miss Vaile suggested that the development of such centralized leadership involved sound training, the escape from routine long enough and often enough to renew the worker's own spiritual resources, and a peculiarly democratic kind of organization.

There is a strange vision of the prophet Ezekiel... which is a wonderful symbol of twentieth century social work. It is the vision of the four living creatures whose forms symbolized different kinds of life, and whose appearance was as a flaming fire, a burning lamp. Wherever the living creatures went they ran very straight and fast and their going was like lightning. By each living creature was a wheel and a wheel within the wheel. And wherever the living creature went the wheels went, and when the living creatures were lifted up above the earth the wheels were lifted up—"for the spirit of the living creature was in the wheels."

Wherever we go we shall have to have our wheels, and they will doubtless grow more intricate, wheels within wheels. But the hope of social organization, indeed the hope of humanity itself in this day or organization, depends upon how fully the spirit of the living creature is within the wheels.

WHAT did the conference have to contribute to an understanding of this spirit within the wheels?

Cleveland is in the Western Reserve and so harks back to New England. Perhaps it was natural, therefore, that the two speakers who spoke most directly on this subject to the general sessions of the conference should both be philosophers of the old Boston school, Dr. Richard C. Cabot and the Reverend Samuel McChord Crothers. Each brought a message of mellow rationality. Each was witty and polished in the best Cambridge tradition. Each approached the emotional muddle of social work with clarity and a fine intelligence: the two addresses on successive nights, however, may perhaps have overstressed the need of discipline and sanity in a profession which to many observers seems most to need a touch of madness. . . .

Dr. Cabot offered the social worker four fellowships: that of the healing forces of nature, that of books, that of differing national cultures, and that of "sharing one's best." Like the physician, the social worker was in every case sharing the influence of deep forces that made in the long run for the fulfilment of personality and for social integration. Since these forces were dominant and universal, the individual worker's technique—needed though it be for the focusing of healing effort on a particular situation—could not carry the whole load of adjustment. And therefore the social worker must be content to leave something to God, or providence, or nature; and when the limit of really fruitful personal effort was reached it was better to close the office door and give time and these greater forces their opportunity. Fatigue and overstrain in the social worker then became evidence of short-sightedness rather than devotion. The fellowship with books gave Dr. Cabot an opportunity for one of the few caustic remarks in his genial address: reading, he said, preceded writing, and one reason why so few books of importance were written about social work was that social workers read so little. The fellowship with other cultural backgrounds than one's own was essential to the reality and effectiveness of one's efforts at adjustment: only that technical service was truly useful which took generously into account the social and spiritual pattern against which the client's life was traced. Sharing one's best, he explained, was admitting the client to the sources of strength in the worker's own personality "by communicating your enthusiasm and your standards of life."

What Dr. Crothers had to say of the philosophy that was needed in social work tallied closely with Dr. Cabot's ethics. "Think!" was Dr. Crothers' text. Let the social worker rely on the rising sap to keep the tree healthy, not so much on routing out the "borers" one by one. Let her

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look to the creative and healing forces within herself, within the situation. Before one could reorganize society, he must do a little tinkering with his own mind.

Does the social worker find any real interest in democracy there? Has democracy any part in the spirit or practice of social work? Kenneth L. Pray, director of the Philadelphia School of Social and Health Work, maintained that it had, in a session of the young division on Professional Standards and Education. He believed that democracy should be increasingly sought in the relations between social agency and community, between worker and client, between "boards" and staff. How earnestly it is being sought, when it comes to community participation, was a question which remained unanswered after the opening session of the division on educational publicity. Robert Kelso of Boston argued that publicity was the duty of the social agency as an accounting of stewardship to the community: the speakers who followed, particularly William J. Norton of the Detroit Community Fund, were convinced that the community had little interest in this "stewardship" beyond what it could be cajoled into having by the free use of sentiment in publicity and appeals. To discuss the question "Where in social work is the concept of democracy applicable?" is clearly to move toward a clearer view of the underlying spirit of social work, but so long as the question is stated in that form—with social work as the constant and democracy the variable—it is equally clear that the sheer glow of faith in democracy will warm the spirit of few social workers.

DEMOCRACY so conceived becomes then a matter primarily of technique, and when all is said and done technique is the main business under discussion at the National Conference of Social Work. Otto Davis, now of the Cincinnati Council of Social Agencies, remarked of the Cleveland conference that he found on all sides a state of mind which might be summed by saying: "We don't know, but we hope we can find out." Social measurements bobbed up continually. If the conference was short on subjective values it was long on objective tests. Few of the fact-finding studies in social work technique have gone far enough, to be sure, to yield much in the way of general conclusions or even immediate interpretation. But they are on the way. Raymond Clapp's tabulation of comparative volume and cost of social work in nineteen cities, on which The Survey has already drawn for two articles (March 15, p. 661, May 15, p. 239), were heard of in many connections. Lawson Purdy, general director of the New York Charity Organization, referred to them and drew on economic research for a factual answer to the question How Much Social Work Can a Community Afford? His conclusion from an analysis of per capita income was that "it is reasonably evident that there is money enough in every city to support needed social work." An eager audience met in the joint session of the family welfare societies and the community chests to hear the results of a study of relief costs made by a committee representing jointly their national agencies. This study showed a trend markedly upward for the period 1916-1925. Roughly, the average relief expenditure in 36 cities of more than 100,000 for 1925 is more than twice that of 1916, even when corrected for the purchasing power of the dollar. An explanation of this trend is still to be worked out. In the family division, efforts were made to define the way in which the client's growth in personality—that is, in the power to make his own adjustments—could be recorded and used as a test of good case work.

To set down here the technical advances or retrogressions indicated in the twelve divisional programs would obviously be impossible for reasons of space even if anybody knew what they were—and I think nobody does. Again there was a strong drift toward the meetings of the mental hygiene division: here there was a growing assurance about practical organization programs as a result of experience, and evidence too that on the side of theory, conference audiences are ready year by year for stronger meat. There was wide comment in the family division on the fresh recognition of the importance of religious faith and religious contacts in the solution of family problems in a meeting addressed by Mrs. John M. Glenn of New York and Rabbi Abba Hillel Silver of Cleveland.

From the standpoint of conference organization there was special interest in the two new sections: one on professional standards and education, meeting for the second time, and one on educational publicity, making its debut. The first has adopted the interesting policy of closing in on its subject from a variety of factual approaches, and even went so far as to call in speakers from other professional fields, engineering, education and law, to contribute what they could by way of analogy to an understanding of education in professional standards.

The newest section began its work with a thoughtful analysis of the underlying principles of educational publicity, and tackled the subject of the interpretation of professional standards of social work to the public, but in between there was something of a lapse into matters of technique such as have been dealt with much more originally in the afternoon sessions of the Committee on Publicity Methods in Social Work. The interplay of public opinion and social work policy is clearly a matter of deep importance to the conference membership as a whole, and while this functional division will always have to compete with the topical divisions for the audience it ought to have, so long as the present anomalies of organization persist, it has an excellent opportunity to render a service sharply differentiated from that of its alert "kindred group."

NO doubt all of this suggests—which was in fact the case—that the Cleveland conference talked shop almost exclusively. It concerned itself with the internal problems of social work: for the problems of public policy in which social work as a whole has a frontage, even for the underlying economic issues in which so many of its problems originate, it had relatively little attention. At Denver many of the evening meetings were given over to current issues the determination of which lay well outside the social worker's territory; at Cleveland prohibition, the most pressing public issue of the year, went all but unnoticed until the next to the last evening session, when Jane Addams brought it in as a spirited by-product of a program given over to the evaluation, financially and ethically, of the amount of social work a community can afford.

The meetings of the industry division, however, did reflect a lively recognition of complicating factors in the world outside social work, and from its field the conference drew one of its evening programs—that on Present Social Aspects of the Coal Industry. On Friday night, with

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an audience noticeably smaller than that of Wednesday and Thursday, Edward T. Devine reported the state of the coal industry as the Coal Commission found it and as the president of the United States—on whom Mr. Devine emphatically placed the blame for the nation's inaction—has left it. Mr. Devine sketched briefly the international coal situation, pointed out the differences between England's waning industry and our adolescent one, urged that the difficulties of the coal industry were by no means unique, and maintained that it needed regulation, but not dispossession or nationalization. "We need the clarification of public opinion such as would come from definite leadership," he said, and endorsed the proposal that a voluntary national committee be formed to keep the subject of coal alive between strikes. He was followed by Warren S. Blauvelt, a bituminous operator who had little faith in political remedies but advocated economic ones, such as the readjustment of freight rates, and Stephen Raushenbush, who made a spirited plea for the miners' case.

On the closing night of the conference, too, there was some recognition of national issues in the three addresses on International Aspects of Social Work. Dame Rachel Crowdy, who heads the Department of Social Questions of the League of Nations, traced with convincing earnestness the lines along which the League is hewing out pathways for international humanitarian cooperation. Leifur Magnusson, American representative of the International Labor Office, described the "intelligent crusade" of that body. Julia Lathrop, just home from serving as assessor to the League's Child Welfare Committee (and explaining that an assessor, unlike the American officer of the same name, was a "very dignified, very amiable and very unauthoritative sort of person") summed up delightfully the outlook for the League as an instrument of scientific rather than political cooperation by remarking that "a useful fact needs no military escort: it needs no man with a gun behind it; it has wings of its own; it goes where it can be of service."

BUT it was Jane Addams, once again, who on the next to the last night of the conference succeeded most completely in saying the thing that needed saying—in fusing the underlying idealism of social work with a quick sense of reality. She spoke, she said, as "an old woman who has lived in Chicago for many years and is very much perplexed at the situation." The community had made up its mind long ago to take up the care of the sick and the destitute; only newly was it making up its mind to assume the task of social reconstruction too. Now that it was doing so, the community chest expressed an attempt on the part of givers to find out what was being done and whether it was worth doing. But there was a danger in looking at social work altogether from the viewpoint of the business man, who was likely to make irrelevant tests of its success. Probably social workers were now measuring up well on the side of business performance; were they doing so on the ethical side as well?

Social workers were required to meet many situations which would not have arisen if the ethical standards of the community were higher: were they now making clear the ethical implications of their work?

Take for instance, Miss Addams suggested, bootlegging, a great industry formerly carried on in factories, now decentralized and giving rise to bitter struggles for monopoly, complicated by the necessity for police protection. She herself was for "full, absolute enforcement," but, as was the case with slavery after the Civil War, there was a mixed ethical situation. "What are social workers doing to analyze it?"

In the 'nineties social workers challenged the structure of society. Then a socialist could predicate the abolition of toothache on the equal distribution of opportunity. Now the social worker cured or prevented toothache, but the service was divorced from social theory. The social worker was not willing to have social theories discussed: he wished to conform and be safe; he was afraid of generalizations or uninterested in them.

Those who live close to the workers and the workers' children had their own contribution to make to the ethical values of the community. Were social workers shirking that responsibility? "At the moment it is the plain duty before us."

A SUCCESSFUL conference? Yes. An enthusiastic conference? No. An inspiring one? Hardly. The delegates sang at one or two meetings: they sang as decorously as suburban Presbyterians. There was too little deep feeling; an underlying insecurity; and a too intellectual effort to deal with it. It is absurd to suppose that these four thousand delegates are in social work for purely rational reasons. They are there because social work satisfies, or quiets, deep hungers in them. Those hungers are not to be dealt with by papers on technique. They need expression, and interpretation. They need to be fused into controlling principles of action.

The fact is, of course, that social workers are not essentially different from the generation of which they form a part. Rightly, they strive to build up, by organizing and rationalizing, a sense of professional separateness, identity, coherence. But in the end they are 1926-model Americans. And as such they share the spiritual lethargy of 1926 America, which is itself a sign of spiritual confusion and conflict.

Until the conference develops some means of interpreting the feelings, as well as the concepts, of social work to social workers it will fall short of its opportunity as a group experience. Until, on the other hand, it applies intensively some creative intelligence to its own procedures, it will fall short of its opportunity as a training school and forum for technical advance. The clutter of meetings, the uncoordinated programs, the monotonous repetition of time-worn methods of communication, the criss-cross subdivisions, the feeble "discussion"—all these aspects of the conference are no longer even news: they are taken for granted, and allowed to persist through sheer inertia. Here is a virgin field for the new conference secretary, Howard Knight, and for the new president, John A. Lapp of Chicago.

Social workers *are* people. The Cleveland conference saw a marked centering of interest in the emotional problems of the family as a basis for better casework. Perhaps the Des Moines conference will see a renascence of interest in the emotional problems of the social worker as a basis for better social work, and in the hard facts of American life as a basis for better service to the wider public of which the social worker is an inseparable part.

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Sacco and Vanzetti

By Elizabeth Glendower Evans

THE Sacco-Vanzetti case has been classed with the Wilkes case, famous in English history as a supreme battle of liberty, and with the more recent and better known Dreyfus case of France. It has certain points in common with each of them.

The appeal for a new trial in the Sacco-Vanzetti case was heard in Boston on January 11, 12, and 13, the full bench of Supreme Court judges sitting. The case was argued for the defendants by William G. Thompson and for the government by Dudley P. Ranney, one of the assistant district attorneys for Norfolk County, where the trial was held.

An Associated Press dispatch from Providence, R. I., dated June 3, says: "District Attorney Wilbar of Norfolk County, Mass., came here today to investigate an alleged confession relating to the murders for which Nicola Sacco and Bartolomeo Vanzetti, world famous radicals, have been convicted.

"A man is said to have confessed that he and his associates from Providence committed the murders. The papers relating to the case have been impounded with others filed in Norfolk County Superior Court. These are in support of a petition for a new trial, filed by counsel for Sacco and Vanzetti."

It will be remembered that the murder of Parmenter and Berardelli, in connection with a payroll robbery of $15,776.51, occurred in South Braintree, Mass., on April 15, 1920, and that some three weeks later Sacco and Vanzetti, Italian radicals, were picked up on a trolley car in the vicinity. That morning they had read in the papers that the body of a fellow Italian named Salsedo, a comrade of their own, had been found on the pavement in New York city, having fallen or jumped from the fourteenth story of the Department of Justice building, where he had been confined for two or more months.

Upon their arrest, Sacco and Vanzetti were questioned as to their opinions, "Were they Socialists? Were they Communists? Were they Anarchists?" The next day they were inspected by various witnesses of the South Braintree crime, and of an earlier attempt at a similar crime in Bridgewater. Sacco was "identified" by some of these as principal in the one crime, and Vanzetti as principal in the other. The upshot was that the two of them were charged with the murder of Parmenter and of Berardelli at South Braintree.

The time when these things happened was that of the "red raids" of A. Mitchell Palmer, attorney general of the United States, a time of terror for foreign born "radicals" who were seized by the thousand, and a number of whom were deported. And many who watched the trial believed that the superheated atmosphere of the community leaked into the court room, that the accused were on trial for their opinions, and that the verdict flew in the fact of the plain burden of the evidence. This belief has been immensely strengthened by further evidence, since discovered.

The hearings on this new evidence were held before Webster Thayer, the same judge who sat at the trial. Much of it has been discussed in various news and magazine articles. I for one can testify to my belief that whatever appearance of detachment the judge gave as he sat upon the bench, he always disclosed the twist in his mind that the accused had committed murder. One piece of evidence over-shadowed all else: the accused were terrorized when they were arrested; this showed a "consciousness of guilt"; and of what could they be guilty, if not of murder?

William G. Thompson had no doubt that the Appellate Court would be constrained to grant the new trial. And lawyers of the first rank who had read his brief, shared his opinion.

Nevertheless, on May 12, a unanimous opinion sustaining Judge Thayer upon every point was handed down. *"The Judge acted within his discretion"*—that is its burden. On points of law he was always upheld. And where the facts, at war with his findings on the motions, were urged, the opinion held that "it was for the judge, on all the evidence to find the facts—he could accept in whole or in part, and the question of a new trial was a matter of discretion." There is no single word in the seventy-one pages of the opinion to indicate that the incidents of the arrest, of the trial, or of the subsequent hearings, reached the understanding of the Court. The causes of the men's terror (relied upon, as evidence of guilt be it remembered, by the prosecution) given by them in broken sentences at the trial and always cut off by the protest of the district attorney or of the judge, "how is that competent?"—facts not disputed and yet brushed aside, these were recited eloquently, convincingly by Mr. Thompson. If the row of learned judges as they sat upon the bench had ears, they must have heard. But from the opinion it would seem as if the words had never been spoken.

IN his argument before the Court, Mr. Thompson had called attention to the excellent character which both of the men bore; to the fact that they were both of them steadily employed; to the fact that Sacco that year had paid a federal income tax, and that at the time of his arrest he was earning as high as $80 a week. He called attention to the fact that after the crime occurred the men had not moved from the vicinity, but that on the contrary, on the evening of their arrest they were arranging for a meeting in a town adjacent to South Braintree to protest against the arrest and the deportation of so-called radicals. A draft of the flier to advertise this meeting was taken from Vanzetti's pocket by the police, and at the trial it was

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introduced by the prosecution. Further, there had been no evidence that either Sacco or Vanzetti or any of their friends had received any part of the stolen payroll of which the murders had been the occasion. And there was the alibi evidence which, especially in the case of Sacco, had amounted almost to a demonstration. Apparently, Mr. Thompson's words were spoken to vacant air.

In the matter of the Proctor incident, the action of the Supreme Court was remarkable. This so-called evidence was told in various newspapers and magazines, how Captain Charles H. Proctor of the state police, called as a government witness, had admitted, after the trial, that his testimony relative to the government's claim that the mortal bullet had been fired from Sacco's gun had been purposely framed. He was understood both by the defendant's counsel and likewise by the judge, as was shown in his instruction to the jury, to have supported this claim. But in a later affidavit he explained that on the witness stand the question had been put to him in a prearranged form of words. Had he been asked the direct question, he said, "I should have answered them, as I do now, without hesitation, in the negative."

The district attorney and his assistant, each of them, filed an affidavit making an indignant *general denial;* but their statements really confirmed Captain Proctor's. Indeed, the assistant district attorney admitted in so many words that he had known Captain Proctor's opinion. Judge Thayer considered the three affidavits in a lengthy opinion which, with many words, discussed self-evident or irrelevant matters but which omitted all reference to the main fact; and as an outcome he found that Captain Proctor's misunderstood testimony had not been injurious to the defendant's case, and that the prosecuting officers had done nothing incompatible with the strictest sense of honor. And what did the Supreme Court do in the matter? Quoting at length from the three easily understood affidavits and even more at length from Judge Thayer's opinion, it has held that his findings "cannot be successfully challenged!"

Equally astonishing is its dealing with the elaborate series of photographs taken under a high power microscope which were introduced at hearings subsequent to the trial, and which the defense held proved, among other things, that the bullet which had killed Berardelli could not have been fired from Sacco's gun. One of the microphotographs showed the primer of a shell fired from Sacco's pistol as an experiment during the trial, which had a dent from the firing pin twenty-three degrees off centre, and in contrast was another microphotograph of the primer of the bullet which had killed Berardelli in which the firing pin struck in the exact centre.

The district attorney had argued that this discrepancy was due to a "tolerance of the firing pin." Had a larger number of shots been fired from Sacco's gun, he claimed the firing pin would probably have struck anywhere within a radius of twenty-three degrees. "If you thought that, why did you not test your theory by firing a larger number of shots?" asked Mr. Thompson. "However, why argue the question? Let us put it to the test. Let us go out in the lot and fire Sacco's pistol fifty times, or one hundred times. We will bring the primers into the court room, and we will see if in every instance Sacco's pistol does not strike twenty-three degrees off centre. I will stand by that test."

In spite of this challenge, Judge Thayer did not allow the shots to be fired. And the Supreme Court, summing up this mass of evidence in a single page, found "that the photographic and microscopic examinations and experimental tests were evidence only for the judge's consideration . . . the judge had heard the evidence at the trial [a clear misstatement, since the microphotographs had not then been made] and his declination to follow the defendant's experts cannot be classed as an error at law."

Before the Supreme Court Mr. Thompson had pleaded the high traditions of the English common law. It was for this that he had argued the case at such length. "It would seem to me an appalling thing," he had said, "if it should go out throughout the world, into Russia where liberalism is dead, into Italy where it is also dead, into France where it is dying, into England where it is in danger—if it should go out into all those places that when Italian radicals, whether Anarchists, Communists, or Socialists, are on trial for their lives, here, too, yes, even in the commonwealth of Massachusetts, the rule of reason ceases to operate and the rule of force and fear takes its place."

In an article written last August under the title When the Downtrodden Ask Justice, the probable outcome of an appeal to the Supreme Court in the Sacco-Vanzetti Case was discussed, and the forecast was ventured that the lower court would be upheld. "Supreme Court judges, after all," it was commented, "are only human beings; there is such a thing as pride of profession; and were all that transpired at the trial and at the subsequent hearings to be revealed to the full light of day, a blow would be dealt to the processes of justice which no court could contemplate with equanimity."

THE facts as stated in this article are given in non-legal words, and the opinions are those of one unlearned in the law. Those who desire a more complete and a more scholarly statement are referred to an article in the New Republic of June 9. As a conclusion, this article says of the Commonwealth against Sacco and Vanzetti that the Supreme Court of Massachusetts *"already stands condemned."*

"How do Sacco and Vanzetti take the Supreme Court opinion?" it will be asked. Vanzetti is full of fight. He has no notion of dying as a murderer if such death is to be by any means avoided—he who has given his whole life for the rescue of the downtrodden. But Sacco wants to die. The Supreme Court opinion convinces him that there is no justice for such as he in these United States. He has been in prison now for six years, and he will bear imprisonment no longer. He will die for the proletariat. Many have died for them and many more will die for them before they learn to live together in love and in honor. The proletariat do not yet understand," so he says. To his wife's pleadings, he answers, "You and I have suffered enough." To Mr. Thompson who pleads that he is throwing up the case, he answers, "All whose opinions I care for will understand."

But fortunately among those who champion Sacco and Vanzetti are some who cherish the good name of Massachusetts. They are determined that Sacco and Vanzetti shall not die, if by any means their freedom can be won. And still more are they determined that their state shall be saved from the crime of committing a judicial murder. *And Truth has an awful way of coming into its own.* (*Continued on p.* 393)

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The Common Welfare

WHEN on May 20 President Coolidge signed the Watson-Parker railroad bill, he abolished the Railroad Labor Board and threw back upon the railroad executives and their employes primary responsibility for the adjustment of their controversies and maintaining continuity of transportation service. Frank Kent of the Baltimore Sun, one of the keenest and best informed of Washington correspondents, in appraising the opinion of men who have followed the development of public policy with respect to industrial relations, gives it as the judgment of detached and unprejudiced minds that this law is the "most momentous piece of legislation affecting capital and labor ever offered in this country." If the action of congress and the president may be taken as an accurate index to the drift of public opinion, if the operation of this law on the railroads should prove to have a decisive influence upon the development of industrial government in our basic industries, this characterization will be approved by the event.

The law makes it the duty of carriers and employes "to exert every reasonable effort to make and maintain agreements," and to adjust disputes first through direct conference of authorized representatives, then through Boards of Adjustment composed of equal numbers of employe and management representatives having jurisdiction over the carrier or carriers, and the groups of employes making the agreements, then through a Board of Mediation composed of five members appointed by the president. If the Board of Mediation cannot lead the parties to settlement, it must seek to induce them to submit their dispute to a Board of Arbitration. Each of the disputants selects one or two arbitrators according as to whether they elect to have a board of three or six. The arbitrators so selected have from five to fifteen days to agree upon one or two "neutral arbitrators." If they are unable to agree, the neutrals are to be appointed by the Board of Mediation. Finally, if the Board of Arbitration is unable to bring the disputants together, the Board of Mediation may notify the president and he may create an Emergency Board to investigate and report within thirty days, during which period all parties are forbidden to change "the conditions out of which the dispute arose." None of these boards are to function as courts. Their exclusive duty is to act as mediators, except that, when the recommendations of the Board of Arbitration are disregarded and a strike or lockout threatens to ensue, this Board is expected to make a public allocation of responsibility for the failure to reach a settlement.

In signing the bill, President Coolidge expressed the view of those who drafted and supported it when he said that "we should give every encouragement to industry to create within itself such a relationship and such machinery of adjustment between its employers and employes as will give the public continuous and efficient service, and to accomplish these relations within itself without the intervention of the government." Will the time ever come when such positive encouragement will be extended to steel and coal and other basic industries whose essentially public service character has not yet received formal recognition in the law? If that should be the ultimate effect, historians looking back upon this piece of legislation will certainly see it as momentous.

THE advisory committee appointed by Mary Anderson, director of the U. S. Woman's Bureau, to advise on the scope of the "comprehensive investigation of all the special laws regulating the employment of women to determine their effects" requested by the Women's Industrial Conference in January, has been "dissolved" in a fog of bitterness and misunderstanding. Miss Anderson's committee of six members was equally divided between partisans of the National Woman's Party, the left wing of the American feminists who stand for "absolute equality" and oppose "discriminatory sex legislation," and the trade union and other groups representing the largest women's organizations in the country, who favor special legislation for women in industry. This committee held four more or less stormy meetings. On the call to a fifth meeting, Sara Conboy, representing the American Federation of Labor, Mabel Leslie of the National Women's Trade Union League and Maud Wood Park, a member of a committee representing eleven national organizations of women opposed to the "equal rights amendment," tendered their resignations to Miss Anderson. The rock on which the committee split was the method of the proposed investigation. The National Woman's Party members wished the investigation to be by public hearings. Miss Leslie heatedly stated the view of her group in her telegram of resignation in which she said:

> We asked in good faith for a real investigation of vital industrial problems affecting millions of working women. That means a technical study by experts and by scientific methods. The Woman's Party, which does not represent working women at all but women who never had to work for a living, does not want scientific investigation but public hearings and a forum for its speakers. Working women who advocate labor laws and need them could not testify at public hearings without risk of losing their jobs. Thus hearings would not bring out facts but only one-sided opinion and result in injustice to working women which we refuse to countenance.

EQUAL dissatisfaction appears to be felt by the Woman's Party group, a leader of which writes in a private letter:

> Four meetings of the committee were held. Our side demanded that the investigation be conducted so that both sides would have the opportunity to be heard at every stage. The other side supported the plan of the Bureau which is to in-

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vestigate the subject by sending field agents through the country directed only by those opposed to equality in labor legislation. . . . We know that no person holding our point of view has had any voice in planning the investigation.

In a recent statement of the Women's Bureau, Miss Anderson points out that the advisory committee was a purely unofficial body and that before it broke up it had fulfilled its function of advising on the scope of the study. She states:

The investigation will proceed. It will be conducted according to the accepted methods of scientific investigation followed by the Women's Bureau and endorsed by its technical committee of industrial experts, who are Miss Mary Van Kleeck, director of the Division of Industrial Studies of the Russell Sage Foundation; Mrs. Frank B. Gilbreth, industrial engineer, and Dr. Charles P. Neill, former Commissioner of Labor of the U. S. A full report of the investigation will be published as soon as the findings can be assembled and will be distributed as a public document.

The investigation as now outlined will include a comparative study of women workers in representative industries in states which do and do not have special legislation, a comparison of conditions before and after the enactment of such legislation, and an analysis of other factors which affect women in industry. Special emphasis will be placed on "laws regulating hours, daily, weekly and at night and on laws prohibiting women's employment in certain occupations." Such an investigation, honestly and thoroughly carried out, should make available a body of reliable evidence to guide a puzzled public in appraising the position of the publicity geniuses of the Woman's Party and that of the more numerous but less vocal group, many of whom have spent a lifetime of unselfish effort to secure legislation for the protection of women workers.

WHILE the newspapers have been hanging probation in the headlines, a most thorough-going trial of its power to help adult offenders has been under way in the Court of General Sessions in New York city, one of the largest criminal courts in the country. Probation in this Court has been carried forward by three voluntary groups—Catholic, Protestant, and Jewish—on behalf of offenders of their respective faiths. Last year a comprehensive law to establish an adequate bureau of adult probation under the civil service was passed by the New York state legislature, with the support of all three groups and the endorsement of the National Probation Association. Pending the granting of the necessarily large appropriation of a quarter of a million dollars to put this law into effect a model bureau for adult Catholic offenders was established by Cardinal Hayes and the Rev. Robert F. Keegan, and placed under the direction of Edwin J. Cooley, on leave of absence from the New York City Magistrate's Court. Thirty trained probation officers, young college men with social work experience and a realization of the possibilities of their work, were placed under the diretcion of Mr. Cooley and a woman case supervisor, taking the place of three probation officers of the old type. While the staff was increased more than ten fold the number of probationers was actually reduced, so that intensive work with each offender was possible. Each case is thoroughly investigated before sentence and a written recommendation is made to the judge. Psychiatric and physical examinations are routine. Each probationer is required to report to his officer regularly each week, and is visited at his home twice a month, and every effort is made to assist him in obtaining employment and in establishing satisfactory conditions of health, recreation, and personal and neighborhood relationships. If he has a family, its needs are studied as well. All cases are discussed each week with the supervisor, and there are weekly staff conferences, while a library has been established for the benefit of the probation officers to keep them in touch with the most recent material in their field of work. The probation period may be extended over a period of years; at present the probationers under the Bureau number 691 men and 44 women. The Bureau announces with justifiable pride that 85 per cent of the men and women who have completed their probationary period under its direction have been rehabilitated and satisfactorily adjusted to the community. The importance of such a result is heightened by the fact that the majority of convictions in the Court deal with persons under 25. With the establishment of the official bureau which is expected during the next few months, this volunteer demonstration, financed entirely by the Catholic Charities, will cease; but its action ad interim has shown the conditions under which probation should be administered, and the importance of the results which may be expected under fair trial.

TO *Unity*, the weekly "journal of the religion of democracy," edited by John Haynes Holmes, Americans are indebted for the first opportunity to read the autobiography of Mahatma Gandhi. It is significant not only because of the dramatic sequence of events and activities which have marked a leadership which epitomizes the challenge of the East to the West; but because it reveals to all climes the inner life of this man who has knocked at the heart of the world as perhaps no one since Tolstoy.

"It is not my purpose," writes Gandhi, in his introduction, "to attempt a real autobiography. I simply want to tell the story of my numerous experiments with truth . . . (those) experiments on the spiritual field which are known only to myself and from which I have derived such powers as I have to work on the political field."

Gandhi wrote the story of his life for Young India, in which it is appearing serially. Unity began its American publication in April, and the instalments are appearing regularly in its weekly issues. To. Dr. Holmes' mind, the chapters already in hand indicate that the work will take its place among the "great personal documents of all time—with Augustine's Confessions, Fox' Journals, Newman's Apologia Pro Vita Sua, Tolstoy's My Confession. The Unity Publishing Company can be addressed at 700 Oakwood Boulevard, Chicago; and has made a special subscription offer of $1 for six months, beginning with its April issue, to enable the widest reading of the "treasure committed to its care."

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EDUCATION

Experiments in Adolescent Training

The Imperatives in Adolescent Training outlined by Professor Willam H. Burnham of Clark University in this department of The Survey for May 15 could be summarized as "a task, a plan and freedom." Here Lucy L. W. Wilson, principal of the South Philadelphia High School for Girls, describes the means by which a large city high school tries to put into practice these fundamentals of "the new education."

I SYMPATHIZE with those who object to the name Dalton Plan. It is as inept as say, Holy Roman Empire or English Public Schools, for it means neither Dalton (Mass.), nor merely a Plan. Rather, it is a group of coordinating principles synthesizing what has been taught us by our educational leaders: how we think; how we learn; how best to develop in teachers and in pupils, abilities and habits and skills and attitudes—or character; and, above all, how to do it, so that education shall mean to the children in our schools, "a continual and continuous making over of life, at the time of learning, to ever higher and richer levels."

Nor need practice lag behind theory, for these coordinating principles help us crystallize into practice whatever experience has proved worth while: segregation and teaching according to ability; supervised study; socialized recitations; problems; projects; platoon organization.

To teach the individual so that he becomes intelligent, efficient, ethical, even, is not enough. As Sisson says, "Education is not for men and women to live in a vacuum, nor to be universally adapted or adaptable, but to live in their own place and their own time. So education must needs reckon with the social order."

The fundamental principles of the Dalton Plan, as we at the South Philadelphia High School for Girls interpret it, are: first, individualized instruction, but in a socialized environment, permitting each child to work to capacity, cooperatively, in spite of the individual differences, of which nowadays we are so intensely conscious; and, second, freedom, but with stabilizing responsibility, permitting each child to reach his goal at his own speed and in his own time.

Individualized instruction did not originate with the Dalton Plan and is not peculiar to it. Moreover, individual instruction is quite contrary to its aims. In a properly "daltonized" school, each child is an intelligent participator in the whole life of his group, and the groups are in such constant interaction that no individual, no group, can or does presume to live independently of the other.

THE social environment in which children do their work, now as never before in history, is of supreme importance. The modern answer to the question, "Who is your next door neighbor?": "Why, the man I do not know," indicates clearly the reason why the school must help its children to real community living. It is no longer enough that they cooperate with their teachers and their classmates. They must at least have the opportunity to be socialized across the age groups, with any and all of the children in school. The substitution of the atmosphere and the equipment of the laboratory for the cold, formal, separate classroom, helps to accomplish this. Children meet here with other children not because they are of same class or grade but because of a common interest. Intimacy and cooperation are natural and inevitable. This is splendidly illustrated in Miss Parkhurst's own school, The Children's University School, New York. In South Philadelphia, we have not yet attained either the substance or the shadow. In our overcrowded building, each classroom is used by at least two different teachers in our long four-shift day. But we have often had the spirit with us in working out school projects. We hope some time to gain it less consciously and with less effort.

The ability to give her classroom the spirit of a laboratory, the place where one works, the beautiful place where one works, is peculiarly within the range of the artistic feeling of high school teachers. Obviously the informal type of furniture, with tables and moveable seats, add not only to the atmosphere but make it mechanically easy to work in smaller groups. Pictures, plaster casts, books, autographs and other illustrative materials will accumulate certainly as rapidly as in the subject rooms of more conventional high schools.

Instruction may be both individualized and socialized by using mimeographed assignments, covering a unit or more of work, requiring from a week to a month for its full development.

The late Frederic Burk was the first to abandon the daily verbal assignment, as well as the daily recitation, when, in the training department of the San Francisco State Teachers College, he gave, instead, to each elementary pupil, a copy of the course of study in each subject. The immediate success of this project stimulated the faculty to produce a series of "self-instruction bulletins," in six subjects, covering some twenty-six phases of grade work. The idea of printed assignments covering long periods of work still lives in San Francisco, in Winnetka, and in other cities.

INDIVIDUAL assignments originated by Burk for upper grammar grades have been developed, first, by making provision, definitely, for individual differences, not by merely affording an opportunity to make more rapid progress, but rather by intensifying and by cutting deeper; and second, by making provision, definitely, for socialization.

For example, our 11B Class in English in January were

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studying seriously Julius Caesar. This meant finally, of course, the presentation, informally, of several scenes. The work in English for this month was still further socialized by the following composition assignment (the minimum):

1. Nobody likes to listen to a story, no matter how good it is, if it is haltingly told. Here is your opportunity to practice telling as interestingly as you can something that has happened to you or to someone else. Do you know what an anecdote is? Find out, and prepare to tell one to the class.
2. Prepare to talk to the class informally on some subject that you think will interest them. Remember that you must be interested yourself; therefore, choose a topic that you really care to talk about and try to communicate your enthusiasm to your audience.

In South Philadelphia, several teachers in English and in history have been successful in socializing even the making of the assignment by giving it over to a committee of the abler students. The following speaks for itself:

12B ENGLISH: HAMLET

The committee appointed by the class presents this plan for the study of Hamlet. As far as possible your suggestions as to procedure have been adopted.

We are planning to finish this work in 6 lessons. The play should be read before the first conference which will take place May 25.

UNIT I (ONE DAY)

To understand and enjoy Hamlet thoroughly one should know something about Shakespeare and his time. Do you know how the stage conditions influenced the play?

John Barrymore is just one of the famous interpreters of Hamlet, Prince of Denmark. Do you know any others?

Report to the chairman the topic in which you are especially interested and upon which you wish to report.

On the table in the back of the room are the books which you have brought in to be used as references.

Those not interested in making reports may have group discussions on the play. Below are some comments on the play and its characters. What do you think of them?

1. "The tragedy of Hamlet does not lie in the fact that it begins with a murder and ends with a massacre; it is something deeper, more spiritual than that. The most tragic, the most affecting thing in the whole world is in the ruin of a high soul."
2. "Hamlet is a man of sensitive temperament and high intellectual gifts."
3. "Polonius—a played-out state official, vain and slow-witted, pottering words of wisdom."

UNIT II (ONE DAY)

Class Conference will be given over to hearing and discussing the special reports.

UNIT III (ONE DAY)

Any passages which you think particularly significant or which you find difficult to interpret will be read and discussed in class in this conference.

UNIT IV (TWO DAYS)

Class Conference: Discussion of the character of Hamlet. Who are the other outstanding characters? Which characters would you classify as minor? How do they contribute to the plot or to the interest?

What lines appeal particularly to you? *Were any of them familiar to you?*

UNIT V (ONE DAY)

Conference: The play will be read in parts in the class. *We shall be delightfully surprised if any group will give a real presentation of a scene.*

(Any girls preparing to present a scene may take time from conference *whenever it seems advisable to them.*)

Freedom, with stabilizing responsibility, is best secured by helping the student to do his own time budgeting. In spite of weekly and other "conferences," and still other fixed periods, such as assemblies, a short daily period with the student advisers, chorus, physical training, art, foods and clothing, a student in South Philadelphia may have about half the time "free." With the help of her student adviser, her subject teacher, and especially of her own successes and failures, she learns how best to use that free time in order to get the largest results from her effort. She becomes in a small way an efficiency engineer. She is the master, not the servant of her tasks, acquiring also the habit of seeing the part in its relationship to the wholes.

Perhaps a picture of our ordinary school life will be helpful in making this "freedom" a bit more concrete.

THE first month of each term, the student "follows her roster." She has no freedom except within the four walls of the classroom. Here each teacher, with or without the monthly assignment sheet helps the students to see the nearest goal and to acquire the necessary skills, or habits, or attitudes, en route to its accomplishments. She verifies her own prognosis of the amount of time that the student finds necessary to spend in research or laboratory work; in brooding over it, or thinking, if you prefer that term; in written work, including outlines, notebooks, or short resumes; in more formal study; in testing—to which too much time is often given. In brief, by helping them to find and use the tools, teaching them how to study a unit, and how most efficiently to budget their time, at school and at home—she prepares the students to use intelligently and responsibly their time freedom. The norm for most subjects, for all the remaining months, is one "conference" (attendance obligatory) to three "laboratory" periods (attendance voluntary) per week. But in South Philadelphia, we teachers, too, are free, and any one who wishes to do so, may demand the attendance of the whole or a part of the class for any number of conferences per week! In general, we think that conferences with the entire class ought to be either for organization or for inspiration. Where are the girls during their free periods? Perhaps in the laboratory room, perhaps in the library, perhaps in the study hall, depending upon whether they need the teacher, or reference books, or wish to study independently.

From The World Tomorrow
YOUTH

Each day, on entering the school, the student visits her "student adviser," the teacher who keeps the records for attendance. Here she receives on the first of the month a card, on which she graphs her daily progress in each subject. These cards are inspected from time to time by the student ad-

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viser, to see how efficiently she is budgeting her time among her different subjects. Properly signed by the individual teachers concerned, the graph cards constitute a monthly report card.

In this so-called record period, in addition to other extra-curricular work, the budgeting of a 24 hour day and a 7 day week are discussed. Individual time tables are kept and talked over in order to make daily and weekly norms.

Do the students abuse this freedom? Yes, sometimes. In the long run, this cures itself. In the meantime, such students sometimes are put "on roster," a curtailment of freedom much disliked, and therefore reasonably efficient. On the other hand, about five per cent of our senior class are "green card girls," who after consultation with each teacher concerned, are given complete freedom. They may omit conferences and other fixed periods, at their own risk and upon their own responsibility.

From the viewpoint of the teacher, as we have worked it out at South Philadelphia, the Dalton Plan compels better and ever better pedagogy: the teacher must see her subject through the eyes of the child;

It makes supervision efficient: A department head may know, with a minimum of visiting, exactly how the work is being done, whether it is functioning, and why.

It helps to discover children's difficulties and to show that these may come from different causes, some of them curable.

By posting the assignments in all subjects, according to grade, teachers get a bird's eye view of all the work, and are able to cooperate with other teachers as never before.

Teachers are un-selfconscious in the laboratory atmosphere in which everyone is working toward a definite goal.

For the child:

Through the assignment, the Dalton Plan almost automatically takes care of difficulties due to different abilities, or different rates of speed, or both. In particular, the slow, intelligent child has an opportunity to ponder on a problem until understanding comes to him.

Above all, it develops initiative, responsibility. It gives the child the three essentials to mental health, according to William H. Burnham: a task, a plan, and freedom.

We are planning for next year composite assignments, made cooperatively, by the teachers of history, science and English. We shall offer these at first only to the upper quarter of the senior class. The following has been submitted, tentatively, to the teachers concerned by the head of the department of history:

WORLD PEACE

I. Is peace desirable?
   a. The meaning of war
   b. Causes and results of conflict
   c. The great gifts of civilization in relation to war and peace
II. Is peace possible?
   a. The basis of peace in mutual understanding
   b. Mutual aid in the past
   c. Elements of understanding and misunderstanding in the present
III. What can we do about it?
   a. The international point of view (two sides to a story!)
   b. Increase of understanding through information
   c. Increase of understanding through international organization

Courtesy of Progressive Education

Linoleum cut by an eleven-year-old at City and Country School, New York

Obviously, science can add to this a study of strife and cooperation, and mutual aid, in the plant and animal world, and English the opportunity to read some of the great literature that expresses the high moments of the themes.

From this tentative experiment, we hope to evolve a technique through which we can secure a coordination between subjects, leading to a better development of skills and habits, attitudes, abilities, and knowledge. In brief, we hope to transmute high school activities into the gold of purposeful living.

LUCY L. W. WILSON

INFORMAL SUMMER conferences, where students gather to discuss economic-social-political questions under leaders of their own choosing are becoming more numerous every year. The League for Industrial Democracy at Camp Tamament (June 24-27) has a crowded, three session a day program, on such subjects as Coal, Power and Labor, Trade Unions Enter Business, Changing Tactics of Employers. The National Student Forum Conferences, each ten days long, will be held at the George Pratt Farm, Bridgewater, Connecticut, and each conference will center in some special subject, such as journalism, questions of sex and conduct, education, drama. The conference program has a suggested list of books as the basis for each gathering. Informal camp life at a low cost will be the recreative background of the meetings. On the Olivet college campus, Olivet, Michigan, a second annual conference "on economic, international, racial and family relations" will be held, August 1-28. "The discussion method will be used throughout the conference. . . . It is planned to have from ten to twelve outstanding leaders each week share with the group their special knowledge and experience." All sessions will be held out of doors.

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British Workers at Oxford

British trade unions have recently given the world an example of non violent and self-controlled organization. Such leadership is not accidental or instantaneous. In England it has behind it a long history of eager, intelligent workers' education. (See The Survey, June 1, p. 311). Last summer Gladys Boone of the Philadelphia Women's Trade Union League taught at the Workers' Educational Association summer school in Oxford. She sketches for Survey readers the English plan of higher education for labor as she saw it in that historic university.

AN American tourist wandering through Balliol College quadrangle on an evening of last summer must have been startled to hear the words of The Red Flag echoing from the Common Room of that ancient hall of learning.

If John de Balliol had wakened from six centuries of sleep to visit the college he founded, he would have been startled to find that the group gathered in the Common Room was made up of miners from Staffordshire and Wales, shoe-makers from Kettering, lace-weavers from Nottingham, and other workers, with their summer school tutors. On another evening, watching three of his compatriots dourly and silently march from the room when some of us sang that ribald song The Darkies' Sunday School, he would probably have scratched his head and said, "Dear, dear, what is this age coming to?" or whatever it was a gentleman of the thirteenth century did and said when he engaged in the familiar pastime of reviling the new generation.

Oxford, however, has grown accustomed to a summer invasion by worker students, for this was the sixteenth year of the Summer School held by the Joint Committee of the University and the Workers' Educational Association. More than 150 workers attended the 1925 session, all "picked men" from the organized labor movement. Students who go to the Summer School must have been members of a Workers' Educational Association tutorial class, that is, they must have done three winters of solid class work or have some other equal qualification which would allow a tutor to recommend them. They must bring with them an essay on a subject which the school sets for them and they are expected to do some written work during each week of their stay. The school lays great emphasis on getting the students to think for themselves and express their own ideas rather than merely to absorb information. It arranges special courses for advanced study and exempts students from morning classes if they are doing special work.

The program is arranged so that students can attend the school from one to six weeks. Last summer, during the first fortnight, lectures and discussions from 9.30 to 11.30 covered the General History, Economics and Philosophy and Literature of the eighteenth century; in the second fortnight we "did" the nineteenth century and the last two weeks were devoted to the twentieth. The lectures given by such men as the Master of Balliol, Julian Huxley, Harold J. Laski and G. D. H. Cole—were a tribute to the caliber of the students and to the fact that they had learned to "play with their minds."

Afternoons were free for reading or exploring the colleges, playing cricket or going on river expeditions. In the evenings, after dinner, we gathered in the Common Room for a sing-song or a play-reading or to debate such knotty problems as the future of the coal industry—a subject which was agitating all England even then. Each week we held a W.E.A. meeting when we discussed association questions and debated the merits of the W.E.A. policy of cooperation with the universities, acceptance of grants-in-aid from the state and freedom from commitment to any particular form of economic doctrine, as opposed to the Labour College which does not permit official cooperation with the universities or acceptance of grants from the state and is definitely commited to a Marxian point of view.

The students did their most serious academic work in their five weekly hours of individual tuition. During those hours they discussed with their own tutor the subject of their particular interest—it might be Trade Union History or Unemployment, Utilitarianism or the Influence of Science on Religious Thought, Modern Drama or Appreciation of Art.

Probably the men students would say that their most serious thinking was done at the nightly meetings of the Midnight Club in the students' rooms. However, the author cannot state whether the beer and tobacco which figured at these assemblies conduced to serious thought, because women students and tutors were housed not in the college, but in University lodging houses, and term rules prevailed to the extent that the college gates were locked, bolted and barred at eleven p.m. and at that hour, if one belonged inside, one must be in and if one belonged outside, one must be out.

GOING to Summer School is looked on as something of a prize: it is a holiday as well as a chance to study, an opportunity to meet workers and tutors from other parts of the country. Last summer, Oxford made the experiment of inviting the Scottish district of the W.E.A. to hold a combined Summer School for two weeks of Oxford's six weeks' course. The committee expected that the delegation would be from a dozen to twenty students, but the Scots arrived sixty strong. During their visit we became much more abstruse and theological; a new fervor blazed up in W.E.A. meetings.

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The Oxford Summer School was only one of the eleven summer schools carried on by the W.E.A. in England and Wales. It is, however, the oldest of them and seems to me to have a particular significance. For centuries the privileges and opportunities of Oxford have been enjoyed only by England's ruling classes; but the existence of a Workers' Summer School in Oxford is another sign that the workers are winning an increasing share in the common heritage of Englishmen.

GLADYS BOONE

Timing the Unorganized Worker

AN interesting and significant development in modern industrial relations is the cooperation of organized labor with the employer in bringing about greater efficiency. At first opposed to scientific management, as this latest stage in the evolution of industry is called, organized labor has seen its advantages and is beginning to support it.

But what of the unorganized worker? Is his attitude different from that of the organized worker? How does he view this new step in industry? I learned the answer to these questions in my experience as a time-study man in one of the largest American tanneries.

Most people who have once come near tanneries usually come no closer to them a second time than is necessary. The odor of a tannery is a "rank offense" indeed. Yet the various tanning processes are highly interesting. The particular tannery where I worked employs about two thousand men—a conglomeration of Americans, Germans, Poles, Russians, Slovaks, Italians, Greeks, Mexicans, and Negroes.

As a time-study man, it was my task to reduce the work to the most efficient method possible. After the general improvements in working conditions and in the routing of materials were disposed of, time-study and analysis of the various operations were undertaken. The aim here was to eliminate unnecessary operations and motions and to set a time standard on each task. The determined time standard, figured at the wage rate set by the management as the "base rate" for that particular job, gave the piece-work rate. The "base rate" was the current market rate. As is usual in unorganized fields, that rate was the lowest for which the required skill was purchaseable on the labor market. The foremen and superintendents had definite instructions to aid the time-study man as much as possible. The workers were not consulted at all. They were to be timed, and fair time standards were to be set. If the resulting piece rate did not suit them, they could exercise their "right of free contract."

A TANNERY may generally be divided into a lower and an upper tannery. In the lower tannery the raw hides are tanned. In the upper tannery, the tanned hides are worked into finished leather.

In this particular tannery, the hide house, where the raw hides are stored, sorted for weight and defects, and prepared for the first tanning operations, is manned almost entirely by Germans and Poles. These men entered the tannery when most of the jobs were filled by Germans or Germanized Poles. The hide house has somehow been able to retain these workers while very radical changes have been taking place in the other departments of the lower tannery. There is a peculiarly pungent and disagreeable odor which permeates this department and which clings to the clothes for hours after one has left it. Yet the men in the hide house—there are about forty of them—do not seem to mind at all. In fact, I doubt if even a few of them feel the necessity of taking a shower bath in the evening—the company has provided adequate washing facilities—or of changing their clothes, aside from removing their overalls. The foreman thought it quite a joke to see people hurriedly leave their seats on street cars at his approach. Many of the men who have spent the best part of their lives at these occupations, pride themselves on being old timers. They continually complain about their wages, but seldom leave to find new jobs.

Next in the tanning process are the beam house operations. Here the hides are soaked, limed, and sulphided. The flesh and hair are removed by machines—the only machines in the department. All other work is crude labor and, with few exceptions, requires little skill. The men wear boots and heavy, waterproof aprons. Workers handling hides in the limed and sulphided stages are equipped with rubber gloves for protection against the corroding chemicals. Beam house work is wet and disagreeable.

The composition of the working force is varied. Like the hide house, the beam house at one time, so the foreman informed me, was manned by Germans. But most of these have left and have been replaced by Poles, Russians, Slovaks, Negroes, and Mexicans. The last named made their appearance a few years ago when the company imported "a few carloads of Mexicans" in order to break a strike of the "good men." The company succeeded but the men left. At present there is no organization among the employes of this concern, and least of all among the motley crew in the beam house.

Due to the nature of the work and the relatively low pay, the labor turnover is very high. With the passage of the new immigration laws, it becomes increasingly difficult to stem the labor turnover. Former sources of European labor are stopped. The Americanized generation is reluctant to work in the beam house, and the American generation cannot even be brought into it. Nevertheless, here also we find men who pride themselves on being "old timers," satisfied with their jobs as long as their wage scale suffices for their standard of living. This standard includes a good "jag" over the week-end and, for the single men, a proper allowance for the services of some prostitute. Among the Poles a family of six is common; it quite often reaches nine, and occasionally twelve. And this on a wage scale which enables a good worker to earn, on the average, between four and a half to five dollars a day.

In the upper tannery, the men are more skilled and enjoy a better wage scale and better working conditions. The odor is less offensive, the leather is in a comparatively dry state, so the work is less disagreeable than in the lower tannery. Drawn from the same races as are the men in the lower tannery, the workers in the upper tannery are of a superior mental level and very "cliquey." They restricted output, performed unnecessary operations, changed their methods very reluctantly when asked to do so—in short, did all in their power to do as little work as the time-study man could be tricked into setting as the standard output. One sensed the current of opposition in these departments al-

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though very few words were exchanged among the men themselves.

It is interesting to note the attitudes of both men and foreman to the time-study man—the outsider. There is no more thankless job in the tannery—or, I imagine, anywhere else for that matter—than that of a time-study man working under the conditions I have outlined. He is the most disliked man in the shop, although the dislike is usually not shown openly, for he is feared. His findings stamp a foreman as efficient or inefficient, class the output as reasonable or restricted. On his fairness depends the wage of the worker, for his findings will be taken by the management over the protest of the foremen. And, of course, no one enjoys being watched closely and timed to the second.

Men do all sorts of queer things when timed. Some slow down and "don't give a damn who knows it"; others simply stop working entirely. Some work at their regular speed but turn out less work than usual; others deliberately speed up and yet produce less. Some become flustered and excited. A few are willing to have a time study taken if convinced of the fairness of the timer. On the whole, more care is bestowed upon the quality of the work during the time study. It is amusing to see how careful and finicky most men become in the presence of the time-study man.

A few incidents will serve to illustrate some of the attitudes of the workers. A study was to be taken in the beam house on cleaning the hair out of a sulphide paddle. During the sulphiding process most of the hair is removed from the hide while it is still in the paddle and before it is run through the unhairing machine. The tender of the sulphide paddle, a wiry, powerful Pole, was asked to notify the timekeeper, who in turn was to call the time-study man, when the hair was cleaned out of the paddle. The operation consumed over an hour, the man working at better than normal speed. A check was made on the operation without giving the man advance information. The time simmered down to twenty-five minutes. Upon investigation it developed that the worker had been able to "put one over" by dumping a few wheelbarrows of hair into the paddle.

At another time a rate was to be set on a buffing operation in the upper tannery. In this process, defects on the grain side of the leather are removed by the sandpaper operation of the buffing machine. The operator controls the movements of the leather and the pressure of the sandpaper on it. It was our policy to take all studies with the full knowledge of the men timed. I tried to time several men. They varied, but all held back. I put the foreman on the job, and he did it in a satisfactory manner and time. One of the men came over, inspected the work, and pronounced it to be "no good."

"Well," I said, "I'll time you then. You do a good job."

He agreed. The longer I timed him, the more the time period for the operation increased. I couldn't refrain from smiling, and, although seemingly intent on his work, he saw it. His face grew red, he threw down his apron, and told the foreman that he wanted to quit.

"Is this a prison," he inquired in his broken English, "that a man must work with a clock in back of him?"

The foreman quieted him, I stopped timing, and he resumed his work with some heroic flourishes. The piece rate based on the foreman's performance was instituted and found to be satisfactory by the men.

Piece-work rates were to be set on tacking, an operation in which the damp leather is tacked on large boards to stretch and dry. The team of two which I had selected received specific instructions, coupled with an oath and a threat from the foreman, to do a good and fair job. The men took pains to do a good job, but slowed down considerably. "Getting tired?" I queried. "Oh, we always get tired when we're timed," was the prompt response.

The time-study man's work can be greatly aided by the cooperation of the foreman, but it seldom is. The whole procedure seems to him ridiculous. He, the foreman, has been at his job twenty, thirty, or even forty years—and then an outsider should come in and tell him how to run his department!

GENERALLY speaking, the attitude of both worker and foreman toward the time-study man is one of hostility. The worker fears a cut in wages, which can be made up only by harder work, and the foreman fears being exposed as inefficient. It seldom occurs to the latter that as a foreman of the firm it is his duty to foster greater efficiency. His attitude is, as a general rule, very sympathetic to the workers from whose ranks he came. The suspicion and hostility of workers and foremen caused the chief difficulties I encountered as a time-study man. It would have been a relatively simple process for the management to ask each foreman to head a workers' committee chosen by his department to cooperate in the time-study and to have a voice in the setting of the base rates. The whole matter would have been "aboveboard" and much of the unfounded suspicion of the workers checked at its source. What both management and workers wanted was a fair day's work at a fair wage. The amount of work constituting a "fair day's work" might with little trouble be settled between a shop committee and the time-study man. Whatever trouble there was during the tannery time-study can be laid directly to the short-sighted policy of the management which failed to recognize the value of getting the workers' support and cooperation in an undertaking so vital to their interests.

It is becoming evident to management that the worker is more than a commodity purchaseable on the market. The human element demands recognition. Any attempt to force unaccustomed measures down the throats of the workers inevitably arouses suspicion and opposition. It is much simpler and very much more satisfactory to invite cooperation. It is in the interest of both parties involved to realize that the other side has claims which should not be arbitrarily disregarded.

MAX KOSSORIS

THE MEXICAN CONFEDERATION of Labor in its recent convention decided to reorganize the Institute of Social Sciences, founded in 1921, as a Workers' College. "The Workers' College is being organized," the Mexican News Service reports, "not alone with the idea of training members of the working class, the aim being rather to afford a center where those now prominent in their unions and who feel themselves able to undertake the task of study may come for that training and knowledge which is indispensable if they are to be competent to guide and to maintain the ideals around

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which the proletarian movement of Mexico must evolve in the future." This action of the Confederation of Labor grows out of the increased interest in popular education in Mexico during the last year. Over 3,000 rural schools for the peasants have been opened under the Calles administration, and the efficiency of the primary and industrial schools greatly increased.

AN INVESTIGATION of conditions in North Carolina mills employing women and children has been ordered by Governor McLean, following a long agitation by various civic organizations and trade unions of the state. The agitation was renewed when cotton mill owners refused to permit the University of North Carolina to make a survey of the state's textile industry. (See The Survey, Feb. 15, p. 653.) "The employment of women and children in night work in southern cotton mills is more than a social mistake, it is an economic crime and should be prevented by the state," Robert Lassiter, cotton mill operator and banker, commented on the governor's action, according to the American Federation of Labor News Service. "It is the economic blunder and crime of the thing, the anti-business phase of it that has impressed me. I am opposed to it, and will be delighted to have the cover torn off the situation as it now exists in the state and throughout the South. It will be the salvation of the cotton manufacturing industry itself, if the elimination of this primal cause of all its evils can be brought about."

WE OF THE UNITED STATES are notoriously reckless with the lives and health of child workers. (See The Survey, June 1, p. 323.) Even so impoverished a country as Austria makes more adequate provision for its employed minors. A law of 1920, which superceded a law of 1918, provides annual paid vacations of two weeks for "all employed persons under 16 years of age." According to the *Revue Internationale de l'Enfant,* the Apprentices' Welfare Agency, which is attached to the Ministry of Social Welfare, has provided vacation houses for these young workers. In 1918, the first year of their existence, the homes accommodated 1,087 young workers for a total of 29,000 days. In 1925, they gave vacations to 9,105 young workers for a total of nearly 243,000 days. Most of these children had anemia, bronchitis or catarrh of the lungs, but all reported an average gain in weight of from 6 to 9 pounds during the vacation period.

BROOKWOOD LABOR COLLEGE at Katonah, N. Y., closes its fifth year as a resident trade union school with 40 students representing 18 trades. Its immediate needs are additional housing accommodations, library and classroom space and adequate water, sewage and heating systems for a hundred students. A campaign for an endowment fund that will make possible this expansion, is to be undertaken. Special achievements of the past year, as reviewed by the board of directors, are: "The launching of the Brookwood Labor Education Service, a weekly syndicated sheet of feature and news material sent free to labor papers; the summer institutes for labor organizations; the course in labor drama; the third annual conference of teachers in workers' education; the publication of two books, Readings in Trade Unionism and Left Wing Unionism by David J. Saposs, instructor in labor history; and the extension work done by members of the faculty in conducting classes and speaking before labor organizations."

A COMMISSION of four hydro-electric engineers from the Soviet Union are touring the United States for three months in preparation for the construction on the Dnieper River in the Ukraine of one of the largest hydro-electrical developments in Europe. The Dnieper project, a link in a huge super-power development, includes large inland navigation and irrigation plans, and will cost $75,000,000. The power plant will have an initial capacity of 210,000 kilowatts and an ultimate capacity of 455,000 kilowatts. The plant, located on the rapids above Zaporozhye (Alexandrovsk) will feed power to a good part of the southern mining district which furnishes 75 per cent of the coal mined in the country, 70 per cent of the iron and a large proportion of the manganese. The plans and surveys for the project have already been made. Much of the larger machinery will be procured in the United States. The commission will visit power plants at Boston, Niagara Falls, the Pittsburgh district, Chicago, Peoria, Cincinnati, St. Louis, Denver, Canton, St. Paul, Keokuk, Muscle Shoals and several points in California.

THE STRIKE of engineers, firemen and hostlers on the Western Maryland Railroad, which has been in progress since October, and the long and bitter strike in the textile industry in Passaic are to be investigated by the Department of Research and Education of the Federal Council of Churches, in cooperation with the National Catholic Welfare Conference. In announcing the study, the department states, "The theory on which the project is undertaken is that the church has a definite responsibility in any conflict situation because of the effect of such a situation upon its own fellowship and because industrial war thwarts the aims of the church in its service to the community. The present study is one phase of an inquiry which the department hopes to continue over a long period into the relation of organized religion to industrial conflict." As in the inquiry into the Denver Tramway Strike in 1920, local committees representing the religious and civic organizations of the community will be organized, and the cooperation of the employers and labor organizations involved will be sought.

AN ORGANIZATION THAT cuts across national boundaries to further the economic and industrial progress of all countries, will probably grow out of the Third International Conference on Standardization which was recently held in New York, simultaneously with the meeting of the International Electro-technical Commission. Standardization of manufacturing processes, and of such technical matters as screw thread systems, gaging methods, ball bearings, and electrical equipment has already been made on a national scale in this country and in European countries, in the interest of efficiency and economy. The international organization will have as its aim "To lay the groundwork for international agreement upon standards by providing simple, systematic means of interchanging information. . . . To develop guiding principles for the assistance of national bodies. . . . To promote uniformity among the standards of the various national bodies." A committee of engineers and technicians representing seven countries (Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Germany, Great Britain, Sweden, Switzerland and the United States) will meet late in the summer to arrange for a plenary conference for final ratification and organization.

A GROUP INSURANCE plan for their workers, who are not organized, has been announced by Armour and Co. of Chicago. According to the Federation News of the Chicago Federation of Labor, "this does not mean that the disabled will receive benefits during the entire period of disability, but will only receive the $1,000 or $500 for which they are insured, in as many monthly installments." A recent pamphlet issued by the American Federation of Labor states organized labor's criticism of such group insurance plans as the Armour scheme: "Group insurance as now practiced is not understood by the insured employe. Most of them believe that they have permanent insurance at a very low permanent cost, whereas in fact they have temporary one-year term insurance, written at premium rates that are liable to be increased at any time. The insurance for each individual of the group lasts only as long as he is a member of that group. The purpose of this form of insurance is to benefit the employer by reducing his labor turnover and tying the employe to his employment."

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New Light on the Rural Situation

THE recent report of the National Industrial Conference Board showing that radical tendencies have shifted from the industrial workers to the farmers, is only one of many warnings that have roused interest in the rural situation and caused an increasing demand for facts about the country's rural people.

The people of the industrial centers have been studied from every viewpoint. About the rural folk, there is an astonishing dearth of trustworthy information. More than this, a study made by the Institute of Social and Religious Research, some of the results of which are now available, indicates that actual misinformation concerning rural conditions is very general.

It is believed, even by the experts, that the rural areas of the United States are being depleted by a great, nation-wide migration of country folk to the cities.

But is the cityward migration so great and so menacing a population movement after all? And are American villages really declining?

If one turns to the Census, one is impressed by the relentless decline in relative importance of the rural element of the population from decade to decade. As recently as 1880 only 28.6 per cent of America's total population lived in incorporated places having 2,500 or more, the boundary line between "rural" and "urban" as defined by the Census. In other words, 71.4 per cent of all Americans were, in 1880, rural folk. In 1920 this proportion had dropped to 48.6 per cent. It is easy to explain this decrease by a rural migration cityward, yet the Census Bureau itself points out that this percentage decrease need not be accounted for solely by the cityward migration of rural inhabitants.

Even if there were no movement to the cities, there would still be, from one Census period to the next, a steady decrease in the number of people classified as "rural"; because this is a growing nation, and many places classified as rural at the end of one decade grow sufficiently to cross into the urban class by the time the next Census is taken.

In Alabama, for example, Alabama City, a village with 2,276 inhabitants in 1900, passed into the urban class in 1910 with a population of 4,313; and Andalusia City, with 551 in 1900 and 2, 480 in 1910, got over the line with 4,023 in 1920.

Here then we see how some thousands of people in two villages ceased to be villagers and became urban folk; not by migration cityward, but by a process of governmental bookkeeping that did not move a single villager out of his own dooryard.

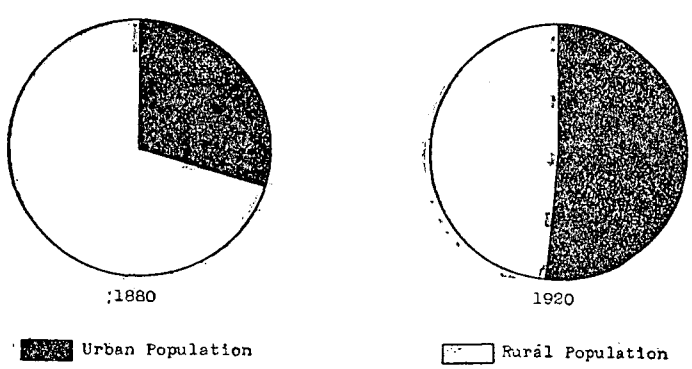

CHART 1. *Urban and Rural Population in the United States in 1880 and 1920*

THE Institute of Social and Religious Research got returns from the villages of all the states. These figures show that between 1900 and 1910, 476 places which had been classified as rural in 1900, passed the 2,500 mark and entered the urban class; while during the next decade, the number of places that passed from the rural to the urban class was 474. In addition, 118 places in the earlier decade and 72 in the last, entered the urban ranks because they became incorporated. It is the Census procedure to classify unincorporated places as rural no matter what their size.

The institute compiled a special tabulation showing the growth in population since 1900 of the territory that was urban and of the territory that was rural in that year. This was done to eliminate the confusion due to the constant shift of villages to the urban class. New England was eliminated from this calculation because the township form of government makes it difficult to divide the population into groups comparable with the urban and rural groups in other sections, but for the rest of the United States, this special tabulation showed that 4,620,055 rural people became city folk between 1900 and 1920, not because they migrated but because the places in which they had been living grew sufficiently to be lifted from the rural into the urban class.

The Institute's report of this study, American Villagers, written by Dr. C. Luther Fry, shows that with the differences in classification eliminated, the rural increase becomes 23.6 per cent, which is the normal increase of births over deaths and nearly twice as large as the increase based upon the ordinary Census figures. When, for purposes of comparison, the growth of cities between 1900 and 1920 is limited solely to the places that were cities in 1900, the rate of growth for the period is 66.4 per cent instead of 84.0.

This rate of actual growth for the places that were cities in 1900 needs a further correction.

In 1920 there were 13,920,692 foreign-born people living in the United States. Of this number 10,500,942 lived in cities, while only 3,419,750 resided in rural areas. Of these 10,500,942 urban aliens, 5,478,989 are known to have entered the country after 1900, while only 1,416,106 of the immigrants in rural areas fall into this group. The fact that during the last twenty years 4,000,000 more immigrants settled in our urban areas than in our rural areas helps to explain the relatively rapid growth of cities. When corrected

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for this factor, the rate of city increase drops still further—from 66.4 per cent to 52.1 per cent, and the rural rate of growth, corrected in like manner, becomes 20.7 per cent.

THE Institute devoted particular attention to the question of the growth and decline of villages. In 1920 there were 10,239 incorporated villages, with a population of 8,509,659; and in relation to the population of the remaining rural area they are growing very rapidly indeed.

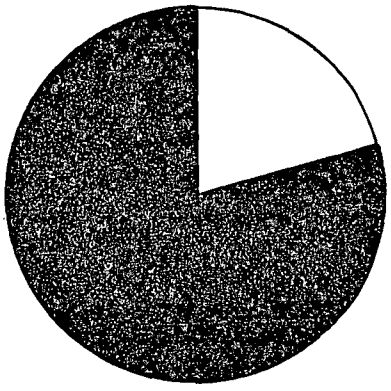

CHART 2. *Location of Immigrants Living in the United States in 1920 who are known to have Entered Since 1900*

From 1900 to 1920 the incorporated villages increased 41 per cent, both in number and in population. During the same period the population of the United States as a whole increased 39 per cent. During these twenty years, therefore, incorporated villages increased in population more rapidly than the nation as a whole.

Despite the fact that nearly a thousand incorporated villages, with all the people who dwelt in them, were lost from the rural classification because they grew into the city class, the number of villages increased 5,674 from 1900 to 1920. Thousands of little open-country population centers, therefore, became villages as a result of actual increase in open-country population; and their growth, by sending them into the village class, checked them out as a loss to the open-country in this analysis of country and village populations.

To find out whether the village increase in population might be explained by this increase in the number of places classed as villages, the Institute worked out the rate of growth since 1900 of all the places that in 1900 were incorporated villages. This computation revealed that the places that were incorporated villages in 1900 grew 51.3 per cent during the next twenty years, compared with a 63 per cent increase for places that in 1900 were cities of 100,000 and over; 91 per cent for cities of 25,000 to 100,000; 67 per cent for cities from 10,000 to 25,000; 59 per cent for places of from 2,500 to 10,000, and 19.5 per cent for the open-country. Here is the interesting discovery not only that the greatest rate of growth since 1900 has occurred in cities of from 25,000 to 100,000, instead of in metropolitan cities; but that the villages have been expanding almost as rapidly as the large metropolitan centers.

The Census gathers at great cost a mass of facts about the residents of incorporated villages, covering occupation, age, sex, nationality, tenure of farm, home ownership, marital condition and school attendance. All this material lies in the Census files virtually unused, because no provision has ever been made for its analysis and publication.

Through the courtesy of the Census Bureau, the Institute of Social and Religious Research was able to make a special study of this unpublished material for 177 villages which were selected as representative of the agricultural villages of the entire United States, and which had a total population of a quarter of a million.

A phase of this study helps to account for both village-ward and city-ward migration by showing that an unskilled worker who goes from the farm to the village, or from either the farm or the village to the city, improves both his social and his economic position.

The Census method of classifying gainfully employed workers by the great fields of industry in which they are engaged, and by which Charles M. Schwab and a day laborer in his plant would be classified together, does not show this; but the Institute organized the data for the 177 villages—and for purposes of comparison, the Census data for 38 medium-size cities also—to get at differences in the economic status of the people, by ascertaining the number of employers and the number of employes, the number of clerks, of skilled and of semi-skilled workers, and of laborers.

The number of gainfully employed women in villages was found to be disproportionately small. Among the males, the relative number of persons who may be regarded as their own bosses, was found to be more than half again as high in the villages as in the cities, 30.4 per cent as against 18.9 per cent; but for those who are not their own bosses the villages have less to offer.

This is shown by their relatively large number of laborers and servants; 31.5 per cent as compared with 23.5 per cent in the cities; by their smaller proportion of skilled workers, 17.6 per cent as against 23.4 per cent in the cities; by the still smaller showing of semi-skilled, of whom there are relatively only about half as many in the villages as in the cities, and by the very few clerical workers, 11.7 per cent, while 15.2 per cent of the city workers are "white collar men."

These occupational differences indicate that if a man with small capital wants to go into business for himself he has a better chance of success in the village; but that if he wants a good job as a wage earner, his chances are better in the city. Nevertheless the villages have many skilled and semi-skilled workers, showing the presence of a surprising number of manufacturing plants in these smaller centers, and indicating that the villages of the United States, which are growing rapidly instead of declining, are also sharing to a hitherto unsuspected extent in the country's industrial development.

ROBERT W. McCULLOCH

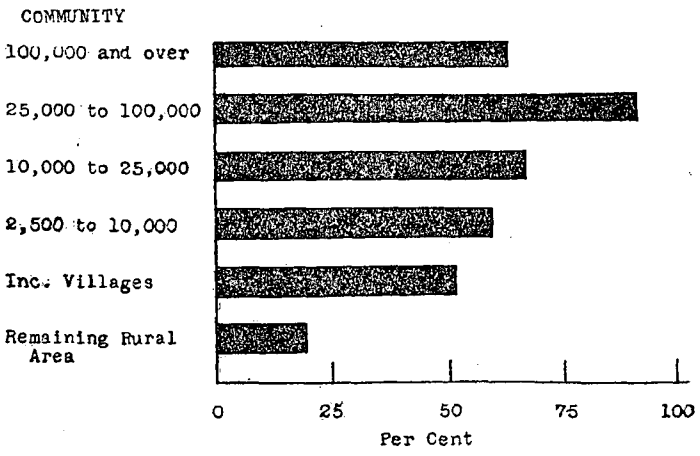

CHART 3. *Rate of Growth of the Population of the United States, Excluding New England, by communities of varying size,* 1900-1920

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HEALTH

One Way Out: An Answer to Some Problems of Private Duty Nursing

MRS. JAMES BRONSON went home from the hospital after an operation for gall stones. Her doctor advised her to engage a private duty nurse to stay with her at home for two or three weeks to dress the wound daily, and give special irrigations, necessitated by a kidney complication. Mrs. Bronson was an elderly widow supported by her only son, just out of college, and earning $150 a month in his first position. She had spent all of her savings on the boy's education, and the bills from the hospital, doctor, and special nurse already amounted to over $500. She told the doctor she could not afford a graduate nurse, but as he refused to entrust the delicate treatments to an unskilled person, she placed a mortgage on their little home, and engaged one. Although Mrs. Bronson was up and about, she found she had to hire a maid to help prepare the meals for three people, and to keep the house clean. These expenses brought the total cost of her illness to $740. Meanwhile, at the other end of the telephone, in that same city, were twenty graduate nurses, the staff of the Visiting Nurse Association, any one of whom would have been entirely capable of performing the skilled treatments Mrs. Bronson required, at a charge of $1.25 per visit, and with a saving in hired housework, since with one less person, part-time help would have taken care of the preparation of dinner and heavy cleaning.

Mrs. Bronson's situation is typical of hundreds of cases in our cities today. It is a challenge to the visiting nurse associations to make their services known, and to some physicians who do not know, nor take time to enquire into the nursing resources of their communities. The solution of the problem of securing skilled graduate nursing service for the patient who is not sick enough to require the constant attention of a nurse, is to call a "visiting" or "public health" nurse. There are 3,368 visiting nurse associations in the United States, employing more than 11,000 graduate nurses. In addition to the usual visit on a fee, part pay, or full pay basis, many of them are offering an hourly service. One may engage a graduate nurse, at a slightly higher charge for definite hours in the day, to perform such treatments as the doctor orders.

The apparent difficulty in securing private duty nurses, and the even greater problem of meeting their charges, have caused considerable comment, both critical and sarcastic—recently more constructive. Among other suggestions, the Committee on the Directory for Nurses, Kings County, New York, made the following recommendation in its preliminary report: "Hourly Nursing. Another method of economical distribution of nursing service would be through organized hourly nursing service destined to reach the patient requiring short periods of nursing care during the day, or for one 3 or 4 hour period. This service organized on the same basis as a Visiting Nurse Association would undoubtedly attract the nurse who resents the monotony and other undesirable elements of private duty, and would also bring the cost of this service more within the means of the consumer." (See The Survey, February 15, 1926, p. 551.) It is highly significant that this Committee said "organized on the same basis as a Visiting Nurse Association." Why not, we say, the Visiting Nurse Association?

ETHICALLY speaking, it is not right that the full time of a graduate nurse whose professional services are needed only three or four hours of the day should be absorbed by one person, be she ever so wealthy, when there is a crying need on the part of others for the rest of the nurse's time. The thoughtful patient, doctor and nurse realize this, but seldom take steps to remedy it. There is no one to arrange it for them any differently. The Nurses Registry would appear to be the appropriate agency to appeal to, and yet, unless it could run an hourly service on a very large scale, the charge per hour would still be prohibitive to the average consumer, and assuredly it would be higher than the charge made by a visiting nurse association, able to keep its nurses employed on routine work between hourly calls. In some registries where hourly service has been tried, the calls were taken by married nurses, not up to date in their profession, not even registered in the state. In others, the calls were turned over to practical nurses, who went out under the name of graduates. It has been suggested that hourly nursing might be attractive to private duty nurses. Surely, that alone is not going to satisfy the energetic, ambitious nurse, who is tired of private duty, nor augment the number of nurses going into private duty. The fact is that positions for women in all professions—particularly in public health nursing—have tripled in number, interest and salary. If private duty nurses are hard to get, and are going to be scarcer, is it not more logical to call on an equally skilled group of graduate nurses, already organized and available, for short periods of nursing, reserving the private nurses for continuous duty, rather than to create a new class—the private duty hourly nurses—or call on a less skilled nursing order whose professional work is rusty, or not up to standard? It is quite true that the private duty nurse is usually in a blind alley job, and the nurse who has any ambition to better herself, enlarge her interests, live the normal opportunity-filled life of women today, wants to change her work. This is not to disparage private duty. It is honorable, praise-worthy, intensely interesting to hundreds of nurses; but no committee, hospital, school or group can hold a nurse in it, once she gets a glimpse of the larger service awaiting her outside. It will be a saving of time if instead of trying to "make private duty more attractive," we

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try to make less private duty suffice, and meet its demands by offering the part-time service of visiting graduate nurses.

In Mrs. Bronson's case four agencies revealed disturbing ignorance of the service of the Visiting Nurse Association. The hospital authorities, with whom Mrs. Bronson discussed her problem; the physician; the nurses registry which supplied the private duty nurse; the private citizen, represented by her son, his boss with whom he talked, and Mrs. Bronson herself. But was it primarily their fault, or the fault of the Visiting Nurse Association that its work was not sufficiently advertised? In the constitution, by-laws or articles of incorporation of this, and nearly all such associations, one reads that the purpose of the agency is to offer "skilled nursing care by graduate visiting nurses for the sick in their homes," and nearly all associations stress their desire to meet the "nursing demands of the community." Not one of these associations, so far as I can find out, states that its service is for the poor *only*—the vast majority will answer any call during office hours, provided a licensed physician is in charge of the case, and many are clamoring for more paying cases, and greater self support. In the last few years the necessity of carrying on work on the budget basis required by community chests, has made associations take stock increasingly of the available sources of income in the community. Every association is learning the value of business methods in computing costs of service and charging proportionately. Furthermore, many associations have realized the need for the hourly service for just such cases as Mrs. Bronson's and find it a feasible proposition.

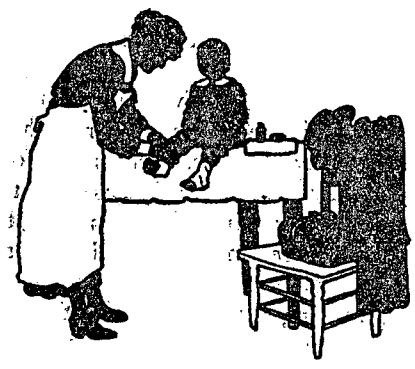
The cost of this service to the consumer, in the twenty-eight associations the writer consulted, ranges from $1.25 for the first hour, and fifty cents for each succeeding hour to $2.50 for the first hour, one dollar for each succeeding hour. The charge is based on the actual cost of the visit (one hour equalling one visit) plus a few cents to pay for administration. Nearly all limit the hourly engagements to four hours continuous service. This is to protect the private duty nurse. Calls range from 3 or 4 per month to 150, income, from $5 to $1,000 per month. Every association admits that the installation of this service was, and is difficult; that in most cases (as in all business), until the service is known and a market established, it is necessary to invest a little extra capital to carry over the period between calls too few to warrant increasing the staff, and calls sufficient to pay for extra nurses. They believe that hourly calls assigned to the regular staff nurses can be cared for, and the routine work suffer no neglect. All agree that it is more economical and better from the point of view of education to allow the regular staff to answer these calls than to engage special nurses, or to set aside certain nurses for the purpose. It is economy of time, distance, and effort; it offers better education from the nurse's standpoint of interest, careful work, and community service.

AT present there is one drawback to this service as administered by visiting nurse associations, from the patient's point of view. With the rather small demand for hourly work, it is not possible to promise the same nurse throughout the period of illness. However, as accurate and complete records are kept of nursing care on each case, and as the nurses meet each other daily, it is as easy for a new nurse to take over the case, as it is for the night nurse to relieve the day nurse—easier, perhaps, as all the visiting nurses are taught the same routine technical procedures, no matter how varied has been their hospital training. This is undoubtedly a personal, but not a professional drawback. We naturally ask, then why do not all visiting nursing organizations attempt to answer the demand for a part time service?

There are several good reasons. Visiting nursing is a comparatively new field, and its scope is only half realized. Pressure of calls from patients already on the lists has seemed to blind directors to the new and lucrative field. They forget that more paid service justifies more nurses. Executive officers realize that this type of service presents certain difficulties of administration. It is a fact that a nurse can make two or three visits in a poorer section of the city in the time it takes her to get to and care for the patient in the more scattered area—one reason for the higher charge for hourly service. Moreover the nurse promises to be at her case at a definite time, a thing she can never promise in her usual routine of calls, when she fits cases in to suit their needs and location.

The hourly case requires a more leisurely approach; the distance from bed to bathroom is greater; there are more materials to work with; and frankly, more expensive ones, needing careful, dainty handling; the patient is mare talkative, and less teachable. She has called the nurse to read her thermometer for her, not to be taught to do so. She wishes the nurse to brush her hair, even though she is sitting up in bed, and there is someone in the household capable of doing this, or of being taught. It takes time and tact to make such a patient think of helping herself, of having things ready for the nurse, and as convalescence sets in, she must be gently reminded that there are others whose condition is more serious than hers, and more in need of care. Some few patients ask for inappropriate service, such as setting the dining table, dusting rooms, washing out clothes, and knowing the dire need of some acutely ill patient a few blocks away, the association hesitates to tie up the time of a nurse on maid duties. In busy seasons this service means a larger staff. Yet, recalling the avowed purpose of serving the community, does not the director of the visiting nurse association suffer a twinge of conscience when she refuses the hourly service of a nurse to a really ill person?

IT is the experience of the hourly nurses that after a few visits and personal explanations nearly all patients are very ready to adapt their hours to the nurse's schedule, that they learn to appreciate the value of her time, and do not impose upon it. For her part, the patient finds that there is great satisfaction in knowing that the care she receives is given by a skilled graduate nurse, especially trained for visiting nursing; a person young and energetic, selected by an organized group, vouched for by a board of lay and professional people; that back of this nurse is an even more highly trained person, her supervisor, who is ready to receive com-



Courtesy of the Visiting Nurse Association of Hartford

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plaints or praise, who relieves her of finding a substitute nurse in case her regular nurse is ill, who has her welfare at heart at all times. She feels herself in touch with a living, up-to-date nursing organism, capable of locomotion, growth, reproduction! There is something stimulating in it which one can never get from an isolated nurse, working day by day by herself.

Finally, it is a recognized advantage that these visiting nurses know how to teach, and are ready to work themselves out of their jobs by spreading health information. They are eager to teach any simple nursing procedure, just as soon as the patient or family can be shown its value. The viewpoint of the visiting nurse, whose salary is not dependent on her case, is the least mercenary of any profession. She is not anxious to string out her hours, nor talk for time. Consequently, the sooner she can place her patient in a position to help herself, the better pleased is she and also her superior. She has accomplished a piece of good teaching when she does this, and that to a public health nurse is half the battle and much of the glory. Surely the visiting nurse is a real necessity for the middle class, and a luxury to the poor, even as the private duty nurse is a necessity for the rich, and a luxury to the middle class. Our valuation of skilled nursing care has changed. There are even some of us who dare to consider the public health nurse a luxury for anyone! Now it is true that the poor and the wealthy may have nursing care by graduate nurses, but the middle class must rely on practical nurses or incur debts!

A definite advantage accrues to a visiting nurse association in supplying the hourly or paid service to a community. It creates a natural opportunity of spreading the knowledge of the entire service among a clientele which should be supporters of its free work through the community chest or other fund-acquiring agency. On her hourly visits the alert nurse finds many a new contributor, by giving appropriate information at a time when the prospective donor is most educable: that is, when he is sick himself and experiencing nursing care. Last year, one story effectively told brought a $50 check the next day, a gift absolutely unsolicited in the accepted sense.

IF properly handled, the administration of hourly service should not infringe on the private duty field, nor, if its organization and publicity are right at the start, should it compete destructively with practical or other hourly duty nursing. Indeed, a little competition might be healthy. At its initiation nursing agencies already in the field should be consulted—physicians and hospitals definitely informed as to its rules and policies. It should be understood from the start that the service is distinctly for the sick person who does not need constant attention. It should not consider the patient who "enjoys" nursing attention, but, medically speaking, does not need treatments and care given by a graduate nurse. Her need should be cared for by the practical nurse, the masseuse, the sanatarium, or the Turkish bath! It is Mrs. Bronson, and her type for whom the service cares—in other words, for chronic invalids, post-operative cases, special treatments, dressings, expectant mothers, sick babies, normal post-natal cases, two to four hour relief of private duty nurses on acutely ill cases, hypodermic injections, and instructive visits of all kinds, relating to sickness, its prevention, and the maintenance of health.

Publicity should not stick at precedent. Posters, reports, fliers, are all very well, but business methods will repay. In the newspapers, trolley cars, buses, hotels, apartment houses, broadcasting stations, factories, schools, stores, restrooms, hospitals, social agencies, restaurants, railroad stations, theaters, doctor's offices, in fact every place where the printed word may be read or spoken—there the hourly service should proclaim itself. That hospitals, practising physicians and dispensaries should be ignorant now of the visiting nurse service is inexcusable, but what shall we say of the visiting nurse association itself, which hides its light under a bushel, and in so doing reserves its skilled service for a limited group, even while altruistically professing to serve the whole community? The physician, the private duty nurse, and the patient, may be selfish and short sighted in their demands, but they do not equal the visiting nurse association which has never attempted to administer a service at moderate cost for Mrs. Bronson and her friends. These associations have something to sell which the paying public is demanding; until they have placed their goods on the market, and *failed to sell,* then, and then only, can we say that we are faced with a problem of securing part time graduate nursing service for those of moderate means.

DOROTHY DEMING, R. N.

A New Way to Pay

SPRINGFIELD, Illinois, has never had adequate facilities for the hospitalization of patients with communicable diseases. For a dozen years or more the Pest House, which commands an excellent view of the cemetery, was maintained at an operating cost of about $6,000 a year. The location and the plant were so unattractive to patients that less than 460 days' care was given last year at a cost of about $13.50 per day's service. During the past ten years several efforts have been made to provide a more adequate Isolation Hospital, but to no avail.

In 1924 Dr. R. V. Brokaw became Health Officer and the same year the Council of Social Agencies was reorganized. Dr. Brokaw presented the need for adequate facilities for communicable disease patients through the press and the Medical Society. The problem of financing was turned over to the Executive Committee of the Council of Social Agencies in July, 1925. This body turned to the two hospitals for advice. One of them, St. John's Hospital of the Sisters of St. Francis, offered to cooperate to the extent of agreeing to take up the entire debt of an Isolation Hospital in five years, providing the Council would furnish $100,000 toward the construction at this time. St. John's has more than 500 beds, sufficient ground, and necessary facilities such as laundry, kitchen, laboratories, and heating plant.

To accomplish this, the Executive Committee of the Council of Social Agencies, in cooperation with four bankers, organized the Isolation Hospital Securities Company, Inc. This company took a note from St. John's Hospital for $100,000 due in five years. It entered into contracts with the city of Springfield and Sangamon County for yearly payments of $3,000 each to meet the interest charges for the five-year period. In the meantime charity patients committed to the hospital will be received at a rate of seven dollars per week. The pest house is now closed and the property is for sale: thereby the city and county are saving more than the annual interest cost. However, it should be stated that the city and county aid is being given

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to help provide adequate facilities for contagious disease patients.

To obtain the necessary capital, the Isolation Hospital Securities Company contracted with the Springfield Marine Bank as trustee to issue collateral trust notes in $500 denominations, due in five years, bearing 6 per cent per annum, evidenced by interest coupons. The interest was secured not only by the contracts with the city and county, but by the personal guarantee of several bankers and business men. The notes are issued as the funds are needed by the St. John's Hospital in the construction of the Isolation Unit. Local investors have been eager to buy them.

On May 15, within nine months of the signing of contracts, a modern fireproof, hospital was opened with adequate first class facilities for the care of about thirty patients. Springfield was fortunate in having a general hospital that was able to contract for the assuming of a debt after five years, making unnecessary a general campaign for the capital funds. However, the same plan could be used by other cities where a capital expenditure at the present time is badly needed, while the actual raising of the money must be deferred or should be carried on by stages.

EDWIN G. EKLUND

Life Blood

WHAT is thought to be the first centralized list of blood donors for the transfusion of blood ever organized in this country, was put into operation recently in St. Louis, Missouri, when a committee of prominent physicians and social workers working under the Community Council turned over thirty-seven names to the Central Directory of Nurses. The list will be available to all hospitals and physicians who will be given the opportunity to obtain blood donors through this central source.

The movement in St. Louis grew out of a similar one in London, which came to the attention of St. Louis physicians. Realizing the inadequacy of the supply of blood for transfusion purposes, it was considered advisable on the part of the doctors to try to establish an index list of persons who would be ready to respond in cases of emergency.

Looking around for an organization which would be in a position to make such a list available to the community at large, the doctors naturally turned to the Community Council which is organized to give service to the entire community. Through its health department, the machinery for securing donors was put into action at once. The newspapers cooperated to the fullest, and within a few days the list of donors had reached nearly one hundred.

Volunteers were examined free of charge at the various hospitals represented in the Community Council. As soon as the blood tests were made and the blood typed, the information was recorded and placed on file at the Central Directory of Nurses. The compilation of these facts beforehand will greatly expedite transfusion, and in many instances, may result in the saving of life.

Half of the donors who have volunteered so far have signified their desire to give their blood free of charge, while others will accept the fee of $25 which has been offered. Donors give various reasons for coming forward in answer to this call for blood. The humanitarian motive led all others, while some availed themselves of the opportunity to earn money for necessary purposes.

A record of all transfusions will be kept at headquarters so that no one donor will be called upon too many times in rapid succession. The list will be increased as the volunteers who have been referred to hospitals for examination have the tests made so that their blood has been classified.

Hospitals and physicians outside the Community Council have been urged to use the list in extreme emergency cases, inasmuch as its chief purpose is to save life. More donors are signing up daily so that it is hoped it soon may be thrown open to the entire medical profession of St. Louis and St. Louis county.

The life of a little child was saved the first day the plan was put into operation. Transfusions had been given the child from father and brother, but still another was needed. The type of blood needed was the rarest of all, but the central index revealed the name of a sturdy young city employe who was asked to go immediately to the St. Louis Children's Hospital. Dropping his work, he appeared at the hospital in his working clothes in time to give the life saving blood. "I would give my blood every day if necessary to save the life of a child," he said, "and I wouldn't think of taking money for it."

ELWOOD STREET

WHEN the National Civil Service Reform League set out to make a study of food inspection it discovered strange standards. "The sanitary inspector's requirements are that the applicant cannot be more than sixty years of age," reported a small city in New York state, while agents of the Pennsylvania Bureau of Food and Chemistry "may not be over forty years of age, and must be familiar with the work connected with preparing cases for trial and be an intelligent witness in court." In Arizona, Oklahoma and Nevada sheriffs are appointed agents for the enforcement of the food laws. Even in the ten states where civil service requirements are in force the low salaries paid for work in this important branch of the public health field make it difficult to meet proper standards of education or experience. An investigation of the salaries paid in eighty cities and forty states indicates that the average salary of the inspectors (milk and dairy, meat, and food) appears to be under $1,500, while foremen employed by the meat-packing houses get from $2,000 to $2,520 a year. In general the study finds that "the inspectors as a group appear to be much more scrupulous and more competent than might reasonably be expected from an examination of the conditions under which they operate," often under political control or manipulation, without proper preliminary requirements, standards, or recompense. "Not yet," warns the League, "has the public realized that the factor to be improved in the fight for clean food is the quality of inspection. Inspection is just as good as the law plus the inspector, and, given a fair law, the quality of food we eat registers the efficiency and integrity of the inspection force."

WORKING ON THE standards outlined by the Visiting Nurse Study of the N. O. P. H. N., the Visiting Nurse Association of Detroit has made a quantitative study of the work of its staff. In its seven and a half hour day the number of visits average 7.3, or almost exactly one an hour. That hour in turn is found to include, on an average, 33 minutes of direct service to the patient, 15 minutes of travel time per patient, and 14 minutes of indirect service, such as clerical work, consultation with supervisors and so on.

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SOCIAL PRACTICE

Surveying the Ex-Soldier

TWO years ago the Oakland (California) Red Cross chapter decided that the time was ripe to assess its post-war program. The findings in Oakland (where a large clientele was discovered to be in need of a more professional type of social treatment than had previously been provided) were so illuminating, particularly with regard to the problem of ex-service men that other chapters representing all the larger Pacific coast cities have undertaken similar self-appraisals on their own initiative or at the suggestion of the supervisory office of the Amirecan Red Cross in San Francisco.

These surveys have beeen heartily welcomed in the cities served by community chests. In most cities half a score of veterans' organizations have sprung up and as many groups of women have affiliated, all with an avowed program of service to the ex-soldier. Chest budget committees, confronted with the necessity of determining which of these organizations are entitled to allotments from the community fund, have usually lacked the facts upon which to base decisions . In general they have been aware of duplications and of inadequate service, but they have not succeeded in mapping a plan for resolving the difficulties.

The advent of a trained social worker, unhampered by local prejudices, has afforded an opportunity for inducing agencies to agree upon a plan of joint action. In some cities, notably Los Angeles and Spokane, Councils of Veterans' Agencies have resulted which bid fair to serve as permanent clearing-houses for ex-soldier problems. These councils have done much to eliminate duplication of work, but they have not as yet achieved their full usefulness in constructive effort—a failure. This is due in part to the frequent change of officers in veterans' organizations, but more directly attributable to a slow-dying suspicion of social case work methods among the groups which traditionally have sponsored programs of dole-giving. In other instances certain agencies have voluntarily limited their programs on the basis of facts cited in the survey and others have expanded to meet uncovered needs. A number of the youthful and inexperienced organizations have been converted to the use of the confidential exchange.

The method of conducting these surveys has been simple. A trained social worker is placed at the disposal of the Red Cross Chapter by the branch office in San Francisco. A committee, usually of seven or nine, including representatives of the community chest, the veterans' organizations and agencies, and the Red Cross chapter is appointed to meet twice each week with the social worker. The social worker gets in touch with each agency which has, or might conceivably have, a bearing on the community's social work program for ex-soldiers and secures a complete picture of its activities, its method of fund-raising, its budgetary needs, its case-count, and its general effectiveness as evidenced by case-work standards and personnel. Case records are read, analyzed, and classified to determine the types of clients and the classes of problems which dominate the field. Tables are prepared which indicate the percentage of transient cases with relation to the resident load and the size of the family job in comparison with the single man problem. These data are presented to the local survey committee at the semi-weekly meetings. Evidences of duplication, inferior work, and failure to cover a need are brought to light and frankly discussed. Typical case records are exhibited and comments on the effectiveness of the social treatment are invited.

After all the available material has been covered, a written summary is placed in the hands of each member of the survey committee. A meeting is then held at which the committee formulates a series of recommendations to the various agencies. The report and recommendations are mimeographed or printed and distributed to all of the social agencies of the city and to their boards of directors. By this time members of the survey committee are usually keenly interested and willingly undertake to prevail upon the agencies to modify or correct their programs to bring them into conformity with existing needs.

Studies of this type have been made in Oakland, Los Angeles, San Diego, Portland, Seattle, Long Beach, Spokane, San Francisco, Tacoma, Salt Lake City and Phoenix. Similar pieces of work are now under way in smaller Pacific cities.

EARLY in the course of these surveys it became apparent that the ex-soldier differs in several respects from the client of the civilian case-work agenices. Many of these men are convinced that their greatest need is for an advocate to plead their cause before the various government bureaus with which they are concerned. The liberal provision made by the government for service men and women who believe they are suffering from a war-incurred disability has apparently failed to convince them that the intervention of a friendly disinterested agency can be dispensed with. Case records studied have indicated that desire for assistance in government claims matters has been responsible for a majority of the first contacts.

Some workers have realized the proper relation of the claims situation to the entire veteran problem and have regarded government benefits as a resource rather than an objective. Other chapters have placed major emphasis on the settlement of compensation claims, relegating to second place the social aspects of the handicap. Chapters which have adopted this latter course have done so, consciously or unconsciously, on the theory that the minds of their clients were completely absorbed in their pending claims and that other adjustments would have scant chance of success until this obstacle had been removed from the path. The event has not borne out this hypothesis. Chapters which awaited

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a settlement of government claims before undertaking an adequate plan for social treatment frequently discovered that the most favorable period for constructive work had passed. On the other hand workers who have steadfastly focussed their attention on the task of social rehabilitation and have persistently shifted claims problems to government bureaus, have now the satisfaction of recording a reasonable number of successfully restored clients.

Every Red Cross chapter surveyed has noted a marked upward trend in case-load at some time during the past eighteen months. The increase may be in part attributed to local industrial depression, but in larger measure it seems due to the enactment by Congress of the World War Veterans' Act of 1924—a piece of legislation which has led to the re-opening of many old claims and has restored to the active files cases of men who had come to be looked upon as proper beneficiaries of civilian agencies. Veterans who have completed their vocational training this past year and have failed to adjust satisfactorily into industry have also served to augment case-loads.

Red Cross policy as outlined by the national body for its chapters asserts that "the best interests of disabled ex-service men are served when consideration and treatment of them as a special group is replaced by service to them through the normal processes and agencies of community life." By virtue of this policy a man remains a Red Cross client so long as his compensation status remains undefined. When his case has been definitely and finally rejected, or when he received a permanent rating commensurate with the degree to which his disability handicaps him, he then becomes eligible for transfer to a civilian agency. It is assumed that cases will be transferred one by one as civilian status is achieved, and that the ultimate welfare of the family will be safeguarded in effecting the transfers.

Transfers of ex-soldier cases to civilian agencies are not likely to occur in the near future in Pacific coast cities. In general, family welfare agencies in this section of the country have not as yet achieved either budgets or staffs sufficiently large to permit them to consider taking on any additional load. Until the civilian agencies are in a position to accept cases, it is necessary for the Red Cross to continue to serve clients who are in reality eligible for transfer. In Oregon and Washington a special fund is raised by taxation for the relief of ex-soldiers without any provision for case-work supervision of the expenditures, and in those states a transfer of cases will probably mean an arrangement by which a private agency accepts responsibility for case-work service and relies upon this public fund for relief.

Red Cross chapters have thus far willingly expanded their programs to keep pace with congressional legislation in behalf of ex-soldiers. All of the chapters surveyed are serving men whose claims have been initiated or reopened under the liberal terms of the World War Veterans' Act of 1924. Whether they should be expected to continue this policy indefinitely is a question which has been thoughtfully discussed by each survey commtitee. To the average layman it seems that Congress has liberalized veteran legislation to a point where no man need be unprovided whose illness could conceivably be connected with military service in the World War. Fundamentally the problem belongs to the domain of medicine, however, and it is unlikely that Red Cross chapters will feel free to rule out clients whose handicaps may be later adjudged of service origin by medical experts.

The surveys indicate that the medical social service in the Veterans' Bureau hospitals contributes an angle to the Red Cross chapter job which does not confront case-workers in civilian agencies. Social workers in civilian hospitals usually contact their own information sources and do their own work in the families. It is possible for them to do so because their hospitals usually recruit patients from one city or one county only. The social workers in the Veterans' Bureau hospitals rarely are able to get in touch with sources or to make home adjustments. Their patients are recruited from half a dozen states and their chief duty consists in working out plans which they must in large measure turn over to the chapter worker to execute. The success of this arrangement varies in direct proportion to the skill of the chapter worker. In some chapters the case workers have lacked knowledge of medical questions and have not sensed the social implications of the various diseases. In other cases the survey committees were able to commend this feature of the chapter program after a study of specific cases initiated by hospital social workers.

THE survey disclosed widespread uncertainty as to the social treatment of veterans with neuro-psychiatric ailments. The services of workers specially trained in psychiatric social work had not been considered necessary by most of the Pacific coast chapters. Following the Oakland survey, the chapter there became deeply impressed with the ineffectiveness of much of its work with neuro-psychiatric veterans and arranged a conference of leading psychiatrists and social workers of northern California to discuss ways and means of improving the situation. A committee appointed by this conference group subsequently made an intensive study of the needs and made its findings and recommendations available to the interested agencies.

The recommendations of this committee contemplated an agreement between Red Cross chapter workers and the psychiatrists in the civilian as well as the Veterans' Bureau clinics to the end that employment rather than hospitalization be stressed in treatment. It was urged that Red Cross metropolitan chapters retain at least one worker with psychiatric training to be utilized chiefly in finding proper employment for veterans of this type.

The Committe learned that ex-service men frequently make the rounds of clinics in a city and that expensive tests are often repeated in each. Recommendation was made that the social worker give the neuro-psychiatric veteran his choice of the available clinics, if he has a preference, and that thereafter he be treated exclusively at that one clinic. The social worker should then hold herself responsible for interpreting the government provisions for the war-handicapped to psychatrists in civilian clinics and for keeping the government officials informed as to the client's progress. As soon as her client reached the point of employability, it was urged that the social worker secure from the psychiatrist a list of the occupations he might fill. From local employment agencies lists of potential employers should be obtained and the social worker should attempt to place her client, making a direct contact with the employer and giving him a full statement of the situation. Thereafter the great emphasis should be laid on keeping the man and the job together.

Up to the present time Los Angeles is the only one of the city chapters of the Pacific coast which has been able and

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willing to finance such a plan. Two of the chapters, however, have employed workers with psychiatric training and a third is seriously considering a similar step. The real service of the surveys, so far as neuro-psychiatric veterans are concerned, lies, not in the specific achievements, but in the focussing of attention of chapter boards and social workers on the entire problem of the mentally-handicapped veteran.

THE quality of the appeal which the disabled ex-soldier makes to sympathetic men and women is undoubtedly responsible for the immense amount of duplication in this field. In each city surveyed the Red Cross continues to carry on a case-work program exclusively devoted to the interests of this group and supported either by an annual membership campaign or by an allotment from the community chest. In several of the cities including San Francisco, Los Angeles, Seattle and Tacoma, the chests have been alloting funds to subsidize a program of service to the ex-soldier to one, and in some instances two other organizations, most frequently the American Legion and the Disabled American Veterans of the World War. In addition it was found that every city had from four to ten ex-soldier societies, each with its auxiliary of women and with programs that overlapped in a number of particulars. In only a few instances have any of these groups attempted to register or clear cases at the confidential exchange. The men's organizations, particularly those with full-time paid workers, usually clear cases informally with one another and with the Red Cross.

The women's patriotic organizations experience difficulty in achieving an allocation of responsibilities which is mutually agreeable. In a few instances groups of women were found who desired to preempt the domain of ex-soldier work and who entered into open competition with rival societies for dominance of the field. Where this situation existed clients were discovered who had promised one organization to consult it whenever aid was needed in return for a pledge that this organization would always surpass in generosity any service the rival group might offer! In Salt Lake City six of these societies maintained hospital visiting committees, members of which were charged with visiting each week every ex-service man or woman hospitalized in the city. The total number of ex-soldiers in the various hosptials of this city had never exceeded fourteen in any one week and had averaged approximately five. Presumably each of these five patients might expect from six to eighteen callers each week of his illness.

The Councils of Veterans' Agencies which, as has been said, were organized in Los Angeles and Spokane as a result of the survey, are expected to eliminate much of this well-intentioned duplication. Any progress in effecting a more equable distribution of the social energy of these volunteers over the entire field of need will constitute a real advance. In all of the cities the sources of duplication are now recognized and it remains for the local groups to correct them.

In Oregon and Washington the ex-service problem is seriously complicated by laws which authorize the county commissioners to levy and raise a tax for the relief of indigent veterans with no provision for case-work supervision of the expenditure. In Multonomah County, Oregon (Portland), $52,000 is expended from this fund in a single year. In Kings County, Washington (Seattle), the amount raised and expended under this law is approximately $55,000 per year. In Spokane County, Washington, the yearly levy of the commissioners for veteran relief is $30,000 and in Pierce County, Washington (Tacoma), approximately $15,000. These funds are subject to the order of the officials of the various ex-service organizations from the Grand Army of the Republic down to the most newly-organized post of World War veterans. Prior to the surveys these sums were expended without trained supervision and scarcely a voice had been raised to protest against the abuses inherent in such a system. The facts brought to light convinced some of the ex-service organizations of the weaknesses of the old method. In Spokane the American Legion requested the county to employ a trained social worker to administer the fund. In Portland a plan was worked out whereby a trained worker from the local family welfare society was placed at the disposal of the organizations entitled to disburse the relief. In Tacoma the commissioners have been asked to employ a trained social worker to supervise the expenditures. An awakened interest has resulted in the four cities which may be the first step toward introducing case-work methods in the relief-giving activities of agencies serving veterans.

An interesting by-product of the surveys in San Francisco and Tacoma was the decision relative to men discharged from the peace-time army for fraudulent enlistment. Both cities are near large Army posts and have been rendering services of various kinds to them. National Red Cross policy obligates the chapters to extend certain services to peace-time enlistees, but permits them to refer to civilian agencies clients of this class who need financial aid. In San Francisco and Tacoma numerous cases were noted in which soldiers discharged for fraud, such as concealing a physical disability or making false statements at the time of enlistment, were deprived of their government pay and of return transportation to their homes. These men frequently proved to be only 18 or 20 years of age and became prey for the vicious element of the city unless aided in making plans for the future. Local units of organized social endeavor in both cities were unwilling to assume such cases because the men are not community responsibilities and because a solution of their difficulties often involves larger expenditures for maintenance and transportation than their budgets permit. The survey committees in San Francisco and Tacoma felt that cases of this type should be definitely allocated and, after conference with Community Chest officials, decided to make the Red Cross chapter responsible for such men, even though the service was in excess of their outlined program. A similar decision was reached in Salt Lake City relative to men discharged for fraud from Fort Douglas, Utah, though the number of cases involved was relatively small.

Although various incidental achievements of this type have been worth-while, the most significant accomplishments of the surveys have been within the Red Cross chapters. Most of them have been glad of an opportunity to stop and take stock of their situation to determine where they are and where they are going. A clear definition of today's responsibilities, now that seven years have elapsed since the Armistice, has made possible a more intelligent plan for future work. The conception of the service for the ex-service man or woman as one demanding, first and foremost, a skilled type of case-work, has been impressed anew on the minds of the chapter board members. The disabled veteran client stands revealed as an individual who needs analytical, resourceful, and coordinated social treatment.

A. W. McMillen.

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Eighty Years Ago

SOMEHOW I had gotten the idea that sound principles of child placement were a discovery of very recent date, and I am afraid that I thought them the exclusive property of a few of our best agencies. That idea was sharply corrected a few weeks ago when I happened on a dusty copy of John de Liefde's The Romance of Charity (published by Alexander Strahan in London in 1867) in the library stacks, and read a discussion of the plans and aims of Pastor Bräm Society for Indigent Children at Neukirchen, Germany, in the 1840's.

About 1827 a Christian minister at Beuggen, one Father Zeller, had as one of his favorite texts "The Christian family-parlour is the best reformatory." Young Andreas Bräm listened to many sermons on this subject; and when, in 1835, he was called to be co-pastor at Neukirchen, he took up the theme himself, and not only preached it but published a little paper called the Bee to promote the idea of placing poor children in foster families. Finally, in 1845, finding a child in need of a home and a family willing to take a child, Pastor Bräm experimented, and with great success. A few of his friends gathered about him to form The Society for the Education of Poor, Abandoned and Neglected Children in Christian Families. In 1846 they printed a "manuscript for friends" in which the principles and spirit of the society were set forth.

These are some of the rules which governed Pastor Bräm in choosing and using foster homes:

Even the fittest family might be made unfit by an injudicious treatment, by giving it a child at a wrong moment, or by giving it one child after another in too rapid succession. Nor is every child suitable for every family. Much wisdom is required, and a certain knowledge of the characters both of the families and of the children, to prevent the union of heterogeneous elements which never lead to peace, but always to conflict. Again, some families, orderly, decent and religiously minded as they are, appear less fit for the object of the society because the spirit of their domestic conversation has a tendency toward a higher tone and style of life than is compatible with the destiny of the children. The society wants exclusively such families as will by their own example prompt the children to labor in the sweat of their brow, and accustom them to a humble station in society, where happiness is to be obtained all the easier because the wants are fewer.

Pastor Bräm believed in frequent visiting and adequate supervision of his children, but he added to that an understanding of the creative attitude in which such a delicate task should be undertaken.

This visiting labor forms the paramount portion of the noble task of the society. They are really friendly *visits* and not *visitations*. We do not go into the families as overseers. We could not, from conscience, entrust a child to a man or woman who but for our supervision would neglect or train it badly. As far as is in our power we secure to our children such families as are sure to treat them as costly pearls. But surely if anything could tend toward impairing and quenching that love, it would be a manifestation of indifference on our part. We should be very unjust toward those families if we left them alone in their work. We should behave very unkindly toward them. Indeed, we find that our visits are a real pleasure to them. They see that we have a heart for them and the children. At the same time, their hearts are opened to receive the observations, exhortations, warnings, and even the rebukes which we should find it necessary to impart. We thus find an opportunity of teaching and improving the families, of leading them farther on in the way of orderly Christian life and family training.

Recently child-caring agencies have laid a great deal of emphasis on the need of studying the personality of each child if a good placement is to be made. In 1849, Pastor Bräm wrote:

Experience soon taught us that it was necessary to examine the character, temper and talents of a child during a few months before it could be known what kind of family would suit it best.

Therefore, in 1849, the society decided to hire a house and equip it as a receiving home, in which children could be studied and housed until suitable homes were found for them.

Eighty years ago this society recognized even the principle which is perhaps the chief emphasis in child-welfare work today, the desirability of keeping the child with his own people:

Children should be as much as possible kept in the presence of the relations and neighbors among whom Providence has placed them. They are more likely to find loving hearts and a charitable home among them than in a strange district. . . . Still, the removal of a child may sometimes be found necessary in order to carry it away from bad influences.

Such time-tested principles, kept vividly in the mind of every children's visitor would surely go a long way toward "raising standards of work" in child caring agencies.

ETHEL VERRY

IN ADDITION to the work with individual children before them, the juvenile courts have become an important factor in the more general child welfare movement, the Children's Bureau finds in a recent study of Juvenile Courts at Work (Bureau Publication No. 141) by Katharine F. Lenroot and Emma O. Lundberg. One or more of the ten courts studied in detail can be credited for achievement in: drafting and obtaining the passage of laws relating to child welfare, mothers' aid, child-labor, workmen's compensation, and the like; obtaining adequate buildings and equipment for the juvenile court and the detention home; assisting to obtain child-study clinics to serve other agencies as well as the court; organizing and developing schools for delinquent children with constructive programs for character building; focussing the attention of school authorities on problems of attendance and conduct and the possibilities of preventive work; the promotion of playground and recreational opportunities; promoting the work of councils of social agencies and other coordinating influences in social work; and contributing to the popular understanding and appreciation of the philosophy behind the juvenile court movement and the principles of its organization. The authors of the report place special emphasis on the need of still further coordination of the juvenile courts and other social forces, and especially with the schools, which have a unique opportunity for preventive work in the field of delinquency.

ON APRIL 1 the Division of Charities of the Ohio State Department of Public Welfare set out to give special service to the juvenile courts of of the state. A consultant for juvenile courts has been appointed who will endeavor to stimulate the interest of the various courts in proper standards of probation, will study the mothers' pension situation in the counties, as well as methods of securing better case work and the placements of dependent children made by the courts. The new work comes under a special Probation Bureau in the Division of Charities. It is hoped to include adult probation work within the next few months.

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Page decoration by Olla Hjortzberg

LET THERE BE LIGHT

Books in Our Alcove

A Monthly Survey of Current Publications

When Industry Fails As Education

THE unfolding of human history is the most exciting matter that the human mind can consider. Mostly we see history backwards: we see it as a rational process, with some "strong man" at the center of things. Under his masterful touch, the inert world comes to life, and indolent men are stirred to great activities.

But our perspective is not good. We must reverse the stand-point: men—"strong" men, as well as the rest of us—are *in* the current, not *masters* of it. It is the world that lives—in a blind, groping sort of way. Things happen without rhyme or reason: they just happen. They happen to men, as well as to inert things. The fundamental question is: Shall these things continue as mere brute happenings, or shall they *lift to the level of mind,* and become significant?

This is the perspective within which Mr. and Mrs. Hammond have cast the materials and forces of the period of the Industrial Revolution, and the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. A civilization had slowly built itself up into something like security: not *real* security, but the security of its own folkways. It was beginning to enjoy the fruits of long labors: not *real* fruits, in a way, but rather good looking fruits, not without a tasty quality. Meanwhile, a certain restless individual, driven by what looked to many like "idle curiosity," invented a toy for his own amusement. It was a toy that used heat to turn water into steam, and then used the energy of the steam to turn wheels round and round. What could have been more useless?

But the toy came alive. It began to grow. It got to be as big as the man who made it. Bigger! It got so big that it could carry a man, and turn more wheels than a river, and do more work than a horse, than many horses: it got so big at last that it pulled whole villages loose from their old locations; piled up cities such as the world had never seen before; produced goods in quantities that were simply unbelievable; set steamships going on all the seven seas; tore down all the sign-posts of the older civilization, and set humanity adrift upon an "ocean of goods." The problem of the last century and a half has been: What shall be the fate of mankind in this drifting ocean of productivity—without chart, or compass, and driven by the winds of desire? Can these happenings be lifted above the level of mere occurrences and be made to reveal their meanings, their significances—for the future of mankind? This is the question the Hammonds have been asking for a number of years: in their Village Laborer: in their Town Laborer; in their Skilled Laborer; in their Life of Lord Shaftesbury; and now in their Rise of Modern Industry. They look at history *forwards,* not *backwards.*

They trace, first of all, the transition of human activities from the Eastern Mediterranean to the Atlantic. In the ancient and even in the medieval worlds there was some capitalist organization of industry; but on the whole, the needs of the average man were supplied either by himself or by his neighbors: "his outlook was bounded by his village; he could watch the growing of his food, and the spinning and weaving of his clothes."

But with the discovery of America, commerce was transferred to the Atlantic; ship-building grew apace; more capital was accumulated and used; and, bit by bit, world trade took up the task of supplying the food and the clothing of the former villager. This commercial revolution tended to break down the self-sufficiency of the village home, and to make it dependent upon "the market." Then came the so-called Industrial Revolution with its *mass productivity* for the satisfaction of this previously developed *popular consumption.* Together, the commercial revolution and the industrial revolution have "created societies in which the plainest lives are ruled by forces that are as wide as the world."

Of course, the industrial revolution became capitalist, from the start. The steam engine "ate up" capital, for it had to be supplied with great plants, with raw materials, with surplus stocks, and with means for reaching the market.

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Transport had to be revolutionized; industrial cities had to be built; populations had to be moved; new methods in steel had to be developed; and all the machineries of manufacture, sale and commerce had to be devised. Bit by bit, the agricultural village ceased to be the characteristic mark of British economy, and in its place came the industrial city, with its inevitable accompaniment of smoke, noise, grime and congested streets. This much of the story has been often told though not often with equal detail and effect.

But, it is at this point that the peculiar quality of the Hammond method begins to show to the best advantage. England became enamored of profits: profits were to save the world. Men must give up the joy of living, the life of the senses, the life of the mind, the life of the spirit, even, and get on with work. "Everything turned to profit. The towns had their profitable dirt, their profitable smoke, their profitable slums, their profitable disorder, their profitable ignorance, their profitable despair . . . the new town was not a home where man could find beauty, happiness, leisure, learning, religion, the influences that civilize outlook and habit, but a bare and desolate place, without color, air or laughter, where man, woman and child worked, ate and slept. The new factories and the new furnaces were like the Pyramids, telling of man's enslavement, rather than of his power, casting their long shadows over the society that took such pride in them."

THE cities grew enormously. Machines grew. But *the mind of the age stood still.* "The creed of the first age of the Industrial Revolution, that the needs of production must regulate the conditions of life, and that the incidence of profits must decide in what kind of town, in what kind of streets, and in what kind of houses a nation shall find its home, had cast its melancholy fatalism over the mind of the generations that followed. The trouble was not merely that the evil was greater when a town had a quarter of a million of inhabitants instead of a hundred thousand. It was that men still saw with the eyes of their grandfathers, and that they were busy polishing the life of the slum, when a race that was vigorous and free in its mind could have put an end to it. With the consequences and the traditions of this neglect, industrial civilization is still fighting a losing battle."

It is all very well for the apologists of that time to argue that the machine liberated men from the old narrownesses and essential insecurities of the village, and gave them the world-wide life and security of the modern age. There is just enough truth in such a statement to make it plausible—and specious. Men, women and children were *liberated*—from the protective customs of the past—into the almost unalleviated anarchy of the new age, into the industrial wars of the nineteenth century, into the present industrial anarchy of England. But *their minds* were not freed: they were not free to use the same quality of inventive imagination upon their social environments as they were upon their physical environments. That is to say, it was much easier to invent the spinning machine than it was to build up a world within which the spinning machine would be a help to human fellowship and not a hindrance. In this task of making a human world able to control the machinery of production the nineteenth century failed.

This is now the great task of the twentieth century: it is the task of statesmanship, as Great Britain could testify if its statesmen were to tell the truth; it is the task of religion, if our religious leaders were to be able to escape from their words and phrases into a moral interpretation of the present condition of civilization round the globe.

Above all, it is the problem of education: not of children, but of the adult generation. We have been trying for a century, now, to save industrial civilization—by educating our children to the same stupidities that we ourselves brought over into this modern world from our village youths. We have failed: it will take intelligence to make a human world out of this mechanical world and we shall never be able to develop the intelligence we need by cramming into the minds of our children the ignorance we now roll under our own tongues. Our education must be of adults—or we perish.

MR. YEAXLEE, in his book of Spiritual Values, sees this in a vague sort of fashion. But he is intent on *values.* What are spiritual values in a world of machines? The machine gladly denies them any place. Religionists talk as if they were etherial matters, which are to descend upon this troubled world to lift it out of its miseries and make it happy in the thought of a better world to come. But, to the Hammonds, spiritual values are just that part of the real world of man's striving which the Industrial Revolution hinted at, but never found. The search for them must go on inside, not outside, the world.

Our modern world was over-filled with material goods by the industrial revolution—to the probably temporary deprivation of our moral and spiritual natures. How shall those deprivations be overcome, supplied: from the skies? from the literatures of the ages? From everywhere, indeed: but mostly from the common life, itself. The revolution must be completed: men cannot stand partial revolutions. When any part of man's life, or world, has been demolished and made over, man's inmost being suffers hungers and thirsts until the rest of his world has been similarly demolished and made over, so that the integrity of his intellectual and moral nature can be restored. At least, this is the hunger and the thirst of some men—a saving remnant. It is out of life itself that our spiritual values are to be wrought. When we shall have completed the industrial revolution by making it the completely human revolution, the spiritual values implied in the economic reconstructions of the last century and a half will have been realized.

Hence, these two books, The Rise of Modern Industry and Spiritual Values in Adult Education cover the same fields and the same essential subject matters—the one in terms of the concrete strivings of the period; the other in terms of the abstract longings. But Mr. and Mrs. Hammond are much more clearly aware of what they are about than is Mr. Yeaxlee. Their work clings ever closer to the vital realities of the times; and though they talk much about industry, in the background of all their details rises the struggling spirit of man seeking those things of which Mr. Yeaxlee writes all too vaguely. For this reason, The Rise of Modern Industry is not only one of the best books ever written in the field of economic history; it is, at the same time, about the most important book on education that has appeared in the twentieth century. JOSEPH K. HART.

THE RISE OF MODERN INDUSTRY, *by J. L. and Barbara Hammond. 280 pp. Harcourt, Brace and Co. Price $2.75 postpaid of The Survey.*
SPIRITUAL VALUES IN ADULT EDUCATION, *by Basil A. Yeaxlee. Two Vols. 320 and 455 pp. Oxford University Press. Price $8.75 postpaid of The Survey.*

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Experience and Nature

A Running Comment on John Dewey's Masterpiece

VIII. What Is Morality?

OUR almost constant concern is with "goods" and "bads." Our most frequently used expressions are, probably, "That's good!" and "That's bad!"; until, recently, we have made "That's too bad!" the "nickel" of casual conversation. We all live lives of "value": we pass judgments—our own, or conventional ones—upon practically all our experiences. Choice is natural to us: to live is to choose—at least within limits. And all of us have this "moral" bias, even the most "immoral" of us.

But such considerations do not prove that "reality" is either good or bad, in any metaphysical sense; or that morality inheres in some ultimate realm of existence. The moral is an attribute of action, of conduct, not of *existence*. No object is either good or bad, of itself; no "existence" is either good or bad, of itself: morality inheres in conduct, not in things. Morality emerges when behavior that can be a matter of choice appears upon the scene.

If the world were so organized that conduct were always determined by outer circumstances there would be no such thing as morality. Morality implies and involves uncertainty, struggle, effort, failure, success, disappointment, choosing. That is to say, it involves *growth*. The world is precarious as a natural fact: there are colds and heats, floods and quicksands, winds and fires, wild animals and wilder men; there are cupidities that ensnare and angers that both cleanse and destroy: who can draw the windings of the uncharted future? Moreover there are physical levels that are the foundations of the earth; biological levels, emerging from the physical, on which "living" things appear; psychophysical levels, emerging from the biological, on which "sentient" organisms appear; and mental levels, on which the more characteristically human organisms appear. Morality emerges on this latter level; but it characterizes the behavior of human beings in dealing with all the antecedent and variedly precarious factors of life.

THE world of nature and experience is unstable. The moral task is that of establishing areas of stability in the midst of these precarious conditions. The world changes; nature changes through seasons, years, epochs, periods; man changes, from infancy, through childhood, youth and maturity, to senescence. Chance is not to be denied by sane minds. The task of man is to establish a livable world in the midst of change.

But the mere repetition of a once moral act is not surely moral. It may, indeed, be unmoral, or nonmoral, or immoral. Morality does not inhere in a class of acts. It is a quality of specific acts, and the morality of any specific act is to be found in that act, itself (taken as a whole), and not in any "precedent" to which it may be referred. The moral changes as experience changes.

But change is not a final bit of existence, either; it is a challenge, a call to effort, an experience to be investigated: it is potential of disaster or happiness. Incompleteness is as much a trait of experience as is completion. The problem of morals is this: to mitigate the precarious and to regulate the changeable by active and intelligent use of stable elements in experience, until the conditions of living become tolerable.

ANY such statement of morality is abhorrent to certain minds, however. For example, certain philosophers of leisure, certain beneficiaries of stagnation, and certain owners of vested existences hold that morality inheres in established ways, in organizations and relationships that now obtain. These established ways are moral. Any repetition of those ways is moral. Any departure from those ways is immoral. The *folkways* of a time tell us what is moral. This makes life much easier, temporarily. It also makes leisure class stagnation moral, and it makes intellectual effort toward change immoral.

Again, there are esthetes who object to such interpretations of morality because, they argue, life ought to be good without effort. Effort is vulgar: life ought to be beautiful. The beautiful moments of life are the most moral moments; and some day we shall see that effortless beauty is one with real morality! If only there were any such thing as effortless beauty!

Empirically, things are poignant and tragic as well as beautiful; they are harsh, barren, annoying, comfortable, humorous, settled, disturbed, splendid, fearful: it takes all the adjectives in the dictionary to characterize experience. The world does not come to us as beautiful or good without effort: it comes as the infinitely varied raw materials of experience, out of which, if we learn how, we shall some day be able to make a world "nearer to the Heart's Desire."

But the making of such a world is an art—not a religious mystery, nor a bit of metaphysics. It calls for knowledge; and wisdom; and ideals; and faith. Wisdom should help us find the ends to be pursued in our world of desire; knowledge should help us to develop in the realities of experience that world of our ideals; and faith should help us carry on from preliminary failure toward incipient success, without allowing us to become lost in either extreme.

Though knowledge, itself, is not moral, yet in our precarious world love of knowledge is an ideal of morals. For wisdom as to the aims of living depends upon acquaintance with the conditions and means by which those aims can be secured. Unless that acquaintance is adequate, all our so-called wisdom becomes vain folly.

But morality is an art—a plastic art—which discovers and conserves and makes permanent as may be the good, whether in habits and customs, in emotions, or in programs of action. Discovery presupposes intelligence; conservation presupposes desire and ideals; the building of a good world presupposes programs of action. To be moral calls for all that is in a man; and that act is most completely moral which in its realization shows the actor most completely and creatively present—in his critical intelligence, in his wise pursuit of ideals, and in his use of adequate means to the realization of the purport of the act.

EXPERIENCE AND NATURE, *by John Dewey. Open Court Publishing Co. 443 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

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THE SOCIAL WORK SHOP

The Operation of Speakers Bureaus

ALMOST every year at the National Conference of Social Work there is some discussion of the kind of social welfare talk that should be made, the method of making a talk, and other technique of speaking on the subject of welfare work. There has, however, been very little discussion of the operation of speakers bureaus in community chest cities.

No attempt has been made by the writer to cover the entire Community Chest field with a questionnaire, but he did try to take a small section of the field and analyze it. Ten chests in cities somewhat in proximity to Louisville were sent questions on speakers bureaus. Replies were received from eight, which, with Louisville, make nine cities included in this little study. These cities are Cincinnati, Columbus, Des Moines, Detroit, Indianapolis, Louisville, St. Louis, St. Paul and Toledo.

All of these cities have some kind of central speakers bureau on welfare work, with the exception of Toledo which was organizing one during the winter months. Five principal questions were asked of each community chest: (1) Do you issue a speakers' manual with suggested material for talks? (2) Do you issue a catalogue of speakers, with types of talks available for year-around programs? (3) How do you secure your speakers and of what type are they? (4) Do you hold meeting or clinics for speakers' instruction? (5) How do you arrange dates for speaking, and what system of recording or reminder do you use?

The scope of the speakers bureaus did not vary to any great extent. With the exception of one chest, all of them included only talks on welfare work. The St. Louis Community Fund bureau is not limited to talks on the fund or fund agencies, nor even welfare work. Its bureau seems to stand ready to supply speakers on any subject, since some of the talks listed are such as: Orchid Hunting in South America, Church Advertising, and other subjects. Philip M. Fisher, former secretary of the St. Louis speakers bureau says: "Our speakers bureau is not merely a community fund propaganda or information bureau, but we are very definitely giving an educational service to St. Louis organizations."

The other community chests, while not attempting to supply speakers on subjects other than welfare work, do not try to make their bureaus merely organs for propaganda on their own work. They all include speakers from agencies outside the chest. In other words, they look upon their speakers bureaus as agencies for "selling" *welfare work* to the community, and not merely for emphasizing the need for support of the chest.

A wide scope of subjects is covered by the speakers, the inquiry showed. The largest number of speakers in each city speak on Health. Some of the other topic headings are: Child Welfare, Citizenship, Recreation, Community Teamwork, What Can a Volunteer Do to Help?, Family Welfare, Girls in Business and Industry, Character Building, Race Relations, Vocational Guidance, The Stranger in Our Midst, and welfare work in general.

NONE of the nine chests studied issues information for the speakers during the year. All of them, however, issue a speakers' manual for campaign time. Detroit issues a sheet of instructions. Indianapolis and Louisville use small information slips in an envelope, so that the speaker may select the ones he wishes to use and have them as notes. This material includes data on the chest and member agencies, as well as human interest stories. Several other cities, including Columbus and St. Louis, issue sheets of human interest stories, which, of course, are used by the speakers all during the year.

The number of speakers varies from 10 to 256 for each city. In its catalogue of speakers Columbus has listed 45, Detroit 54, Indianapolis 76, Louisville 112, Cincinnati 120, and St. Louis 256. Most of the catalogues have topical headings with the speakers' names listed alphabetically under each topic, and the subject of each speaker below his name. In addition to the usual instructions as to how to secure speakers, Cincinnati has a page of sample programs for groups which may desire a series of welfare talks.

For the year-around speaking, with which this study is particularly concerned, most of the speakers are organization executives or board members who speak on the work of their own agencies and bring in some reference to their connection with the community chest. Dr. Frank J. O'Brien, chairman of the publicity committee of the Louisville Chest, declares that it should be the job of every executive of a member agency of the Chest to furnish information on its work and suggestions talks to at least two of their board members, so as to have them ready to take part in the educational work of the Speakers Bureau.

There seems to be very little attempt to educate speakers during the year, most of the chests probably feeling that the speakers are well qualified to talk on the work of the agency in which they are most interested. Practically all the "education" is done just before the campaign to prepare the speakers especially for the campaign appeal. St. Louis arranged both evening and afternoon Come and See Trips for the speakers. That city has conducted a weekly speech clinic for about forty speakers during the winter.

Ralph J. Reed, secretary of the Des Moines Public Welfare Bureau, tells of an unique way of securing speakers: "A professor of public speaking of a nearby college has had a large number of classes in public speaking here in the city—mostly business men who felt their need of perfecting their ability along these lines. When these classes have completed their courses of twelve to twenty sessions many of them have organized into clubs which meet once or twice a month to continue practice work."

As to the audience which the speakers bureaus try to reach, I find it summarized in the statement of Lewis J. Hillhouse, secretary of Educational Publicity, Cincinnati Community Chest, who enumerates a number of types of organizations, and concludes:"... and in fact all groups which meet regularly or even occasionally." Groups listed by the cities, to whom the speakers catalogues are sent, usually with letters and return cards, include: civic organizations, luncheon clubs, community centers, churches, Sunday schools, Bible classes, public and parochial schools, parent-teacher organizations, men's and women's clubs, young people's organizations in the churches, fraternal orders, and labor unions.

C. Whit Pfeiffer of St. Paul describes what is sometimes called the bull's-eye method of aiming at one thing at a time. He says: "We specialized in going after certain types of organizations all at once. For example, we started out with the Meth-

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odist churches. We got the cooperation of the district superintendent, who sent a letter to all Methodist ministers. This was followed up by a letter from our office, which in turn was followed up by telephone calls from our publicity director. As a result of this, we secured engagements in practically every Methodist church in St. Paul....The same procedure was then followed with the Presbyterian churches, with about the same results; and then somewhat similar efforts, but less effective, were used with other church groups. At the same time we were also working with mothers clubs and parent-teacher associations of the city, and there we were sucessful in securing a large number of engagements."

The usual method of arranging for talks seems to be the use of a speakers' catalogue distributed as widely as possible with a letter and return card, by telephone calls, and in a small number of cases by personal call.

The mechanics of operating a community chest speakers bureau are somewhat similar in most cases. The usual procedure is for the chest office to receive the calls for engagements, arrange for speakers, send reminders, and in fact take care of the details of all arrangements for talks. The catalogue issued by the Indianapolis Community Fund, however, gives the telephone numbers of the speakers and asks that the organizations call the speakers direct.

In Louisville calls for speakers are usually received through telephoned requests, return cards or letters. We secure the speakers by telephone, then immediately telephone the name of the speaker to the organization requesting the talk so that notices may be sent out. Reminders are mailed to the speaker and to the organization, to arrive the day before the talk, then on the day of the talk they are both called by telephone. Under this system there is little chance for mistakes.

To sum up the consensus of opinion as to community chest speakers bureaus:

1. The speakers bureau should be composed not only of agency workers, board members and others connected with the chest, but should include speakers from agencies not in the chest. A community wide view of welfare work may thus be available.

2. Year-around speaking should emphasize the work of the agencies or community plans of welfare work and not merely the community chest, although the latter should be linked in.

3. More training for the speakers, more information, more education—these things are necessary, but not enough attention has been given to this phase of a speakers bureau's work.

4. The speakers bureaus attempt to reach any group which meets regularly or occasionally. The issuance of a catalogue of speakers is valuable.

5. The number of speakers is largely dependent on the size of the city; but quite a number is required so that the entire field of community effort may be presented for organizations wanting a series of talks.

6. Most speakers bureaus prefer to make arrangements for the talks, since they relieve the speakers from many calls, and better contact can be kept with the speaker and organization wanting the talk.

7. Human interest stories about the chest agencies are valuable for the use of the speaker, both during the campaign and through the year.

8. The education of board members of agencies should be more emphasized so that they may be available for welfare talks.

9. Some method of recording the making of the talks should be provided so there will be no duplication of types of talks for organizations regularly asking for speakers. Reminders should be used so that all arrangements for the talks will be correct.

10. Central speakers bureaus on welfare work are extremely valuable in interpreting social work to the public. They may be used even in cities where there is no community chest.

WILBUR A. FISCHER

Public Secretary, Louisville Community Chest

Over My Desk

A Monthly Talk with Executives

By Elwood Street

Director, Community Council of St. Louis

Correcting the Mailing List

WE have found a promising way of keeping our mailing list at least partially up to date. The city of St. Louis publishes The Daily Record, which contains a list of all moves which are handled by the moving and transfer companies of St. Louis. This list checked against our own list of givers and prospective givers, enables us to correct it at least for residential addresses. We also use the telephone book, the city directory, and the death notices and burial permits in the newspapers and check up all mail returned by the post-office because of inability to deliver. Last fall we got the post-office, just before the campaign, to correct our whole master list of 125,000 names by its own up-to-date list. Still we had numerous complaints about incorrect addresses. If anyone has found a better way of keeping mailing lists up to date, we wish he would write to us. We will thank him heartily on behalf of the St. Louis Community Fund and publish his solution in The Survey.

Making an Audit

BRUNO LASKER, of the staff of the Inquiry, 129 East 52 Street, New York city, has got out a very interesting audit "for members of the National Committee of the Inquiry and the Commission" concerning their share in its activities during the year 1924 and 1925.

Members are asked to answer questions as to general ways in which they have helped the Inquiry and specific ways; contributions they have made for the aid of Inquiry projects; use they have made of Inquiry tools, such as leadership in groups or experimental projects or use of printed matter; and their intentions and performances regarding the Inquiry both in regard to projects in which they expect to undertake activity and in regard to projects in which they have been inactive. The audit winds up with an opportunity for the person to state whether or not he is interested in the further development of the Inquiry. He is also asked to attach a sheet giving his frank criticism of the activities or philosophy of the Inquiry and his suggestions for its future development.

The idea of this audit could be very effectively applied to almost any social agency and ought to yield valuable information to the executive who is courageous enough to apply it to his constituency. Mr. Lasker would certainly be happy to send a copy of this self-audit to anyone who requests it.

Throw Open Your Assembly Rooms

I READ an article in System the other day (and System, the Magazine of Business, is one of the most valuable magazines which I think a social service executive can take) about a bank which had built up much business and good will for itself by making its committee and assembly rooms available for meetings of groups of all sorts, from boys' orchestras to women's clubs. Social agencies might very well adopt this plan. In many cities some of the social agencies occupy social service buildings which have committee and assembly rooms; and sometimes individual social agencies have similar rooms. Why shouldn't such facilities be offered to the community at large without charge for meetings when they were not required by the social agencies? The cost for light, heat, and janitor service would be small and the goodwill value high.

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GOSSIP: of People and Things

Neighborhood Workers Meet

THERE were well towards four hundred in attendance at the biennial of the National Federation of Settlements, which met in Cleveland on May 23. Not only was it an extraordinary "get together" of the pioneers of the movement and the oncoming generation; but it was a bivouac for the future; the outstanding feature being a running discussion, covering three days, of goals for the next third of a century.

Charles C. Cooper of Kingsley House, Pittsburgh, who struck the keynote in his presidential address, was re-elected president; Albert J. Kennedy of South End House, Boston, secretary; Louis J. Affelder, of Irene Kaufman Settlement, Pittsburgh, treasurer. Mr. Kennedy was chosen as delegate to the international meeting in France this summer.

Announcement was made of the completion of the American commitment on the Barnett fellowship fund; the holders of which will be alternately American and British.

Note This Change

On July 1 the headquarters of the National Conference of Social Work will move from 25 E. 9 Street, Cincinnati, to 277 East Long Street, Columbus, Ohio.

Psychiatric S.W.'s Organize

The psychiatric social workers who for the past four years have met as the Section on Psychiatric Social Work of the American Association of Hospital Social Workers, formed their own organization during the National Conference of Social Work and will be known hereafter as the American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers. Maida H. Solomon, of the Boston Psychopathic Hospital, was elected president.

Elections at Cleveland

National Conference of Social Work (meeting in Des Moines in 1927)

President, John A. Lapp
First Vice President, Sherman C. Kingsley
Second Vice Pres., Dr. Richard C. Cabot
Third Vice President, Eva Whiting White
To the Executive Committee (for 3 years): Joanna C. Colcord, Neva R. Deardorff, William Hodson, Joel D. Hunter, Jesse F. Steiner.

National Conference of Jewish Social Service

President, William Shroder
Vice Presidents, Emil Leipziger, Gertrude Dubinsky, Sidney Hollander
Secretary, S. A. Goldsmith
Treasurer, Ferd Bach
To the Executive Committee: Philip Seman, George Rabinoff, M. J. Karpf, S. C. Kohs.

American Association of Social Workers

President, Neva R. Deardorff
First Vice President, Elwood Street
Second Vice President, Linton B. Swift
Third Vice President, Mary Russell
Secretary, Dorothy Kahn
Treasurer, John A. Fitch
To the Executive Committee: Katherine Hardwick, William Hodson, Walter Whitson.
To the National Membership Committee: Elizabeth Dixson, Leon W. Frost.

National Probation Association

President, Dr. Charles Platt (re-elected)
Vice President, Judge Mary M. Bartelme (re-elected)
To the Board of Directors: Bernard Flexner, Judge W. Bruce Cobb, Mabel Brown Ellis, Edith Whitney Shaw.

Child Welfare League of America

President, Neva R. Deardorff
Vice President, A. H. Stoneman
Secretary, Georgia P. Ralph
Treasurer, Alfred F. Whitman
To the Executive Committee: Paul Beisser, Ruth Workum, Helen T. Woolley, Jacob Kepecs, Rhoda Kaufman, Mary S. Labaree Ralph Barrow, Henry W. Thurston.

American Association of Hospital Social Workers

President, Mrs. Charles W. Webb
First Vice President, Dorothy Ketcham
Second Vice President, Edith Baker
Third Vice President, Helen Myrick
Secretary, Lena Waters
Treasurer, Eleanor Dodge
To the Executive Committee: Mabel Wilson, Boston; Ida Cannon, Boston; Mary H. Combs, Brooklyn; Miriam Finkelstein, Pittsburgh; Cornelia Hopkins, Chicago; Elizabeth Nairn, St. Louis; Margaret Brogden, Baltimore; Grace Ferguson, Indianapolis; Elizabeth Wisner, Washington; O. M. Lewis, Cleveland.

International Association of Policewomen

President, Mrs. Mina C. Van Winkle
1st Vice Pres., Miss Eleonore L. Hutzel
2nd Vice Pres., Miss Dorothy Doan Henry
Secretary-Treasurer, Miss Agnes Ferriter
Board of Directors: Dr. Katherine Bement Davis, Miss Jessie F. Binford, Miss Mary Driscoll, Miss Henrietta Additon, Lt. John A. Brandenburger.

Elections and Appointments

RUTH C. DANA as assistant secretary of Maryland Children's Aid Society.

MARGARET DEVINE as superintendent of recreation at the Girls Reformatory, Bedford Hills, N. Y.

ELEANOR DULLES to membership on the Harvard-Radcliffe Committee on International Research, 1926-27.

KATHARINE G. ECOB to the staff of the N. Y. State Committee on Mental Hygiene of the State Charities Aid Association.

MABEL GREEN as supervising nurse for the Franklin County (Ohio) board of health.

ELSA BUTLER GROVE awarded Vassar Alumnae Fellowship for 1926-27 and will study at Columbia University.

MARY H. HESS as executive secretary of the Norfolk (Va.) Children's Bureau.

KATHARINE E. HOWLAND as psychiatric social worker on the mobile clinic staff of the Iowa State Psychopathic Hospital.

IRMA E. MOHR as social director of the Social Service League of Montgomery Co., Md.

THE REV. J. R. MUTCHMOR as delegate of the Winnipeg Central Council of Social Agencies to the National Conference of Social Work in Cleveland. MISS F. ROBERTSON as delegate to the Canadian Child Welfare Conference at Vancouver in September.

CLARA RABINOWITZ as director of the Welfare Bureau for Jewish Children, St. Louis.

JOHN RIIS as publicity director of the Richmond Community Fund.

C. R. SAYER as president of the Winnipeg Central Council of Social Agencies.

ANNA LORD SWORTS as membership secretary of the New York Tuberculosis and Health Association.

FLORA TONG as secretary of the information and advisory service, New York Tuberculosis and Health Association, to replace Gretta Jones, who resigned June 1.

THELMA A. WEESE, as assistant in social service department of the Cattaraugus County (N. Y.) Public Health Association.

SELMA WEISS to the staff of the Welfare Association for Jewish Children, Cleveland.

GAYLORD S. WHITE as vice president of the Union Settlement, New York city, and SIDNEY HOMER, JR., as secretary.

ELEANOR WOOD as director of the International Institute of St. Louis.

Resignations

KATHARINE L. BRETTLE as superintendent of the Dutchess County (N. Y.) Board of Child Welfare, Poughkeepsie.

PHILIP M. FISHER as secretary of the speakers bureau of the St. Louis Community Council, succeeded by MRS. EDMUND BROWN.

ELIZABETH GREGG as secretary of the association of tuberculosis clinics of the New York Tuberculosis and Health Association.

HUGH C. GRESHAM as chaplain of the State Industrial Reformatory, Hutchinson, Kansas.

DR. O. W. H. MITCHELL as director of the Bureau of Public Health Education, Syracuse (N. Y.) Department of Health.

JOHN F. LANDIS as executive secretary, Associated Charities, Johnstown, Pa.

H. D. WEHRLY as director of the Dayton Bureau of Community Service, to join the General Motors Corporation.

Deaths

HENRY WOOLF, superintendent of the Jewish Orphanage, Providence, R. I., on May 6.

Corrections

In the April 15 Survey announcement was made of Frank J. Bruno as director of this year's institute of family social work in New York, April 19 to May 15. This was an error. Betsey Libbey was director. Francis H. McLean and Porter Lee assisted Miss Libbey.

Gladys E. Freeman is executive secretary of the Community Welfare Association of Ashtabula, not executive director of the Associated Charities of Ashtabula, as previously announced.

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Ask a Question

What problem in social work technique would you like to have threshed out here? Next month's question: Should a foster family be given the facts of the child's history before permanent placement or adoption, and if so, how much?

Question: How can the home economist cooperate with the local family case worker in the child welfare program?

Answered by Alice L. Edwards, executive secretary, American Home Economics Association, Washington, D. C.

The home economist by her special training is fitted to assist in cases where the difficulty is caused by faulty nutrition or unsatisfactory use of the available family income.

Where nutrition of the children needs improvement, she can sometimes meet the situation by organizing classes to which the case worker sends the children and possibly their mothers. Here the home economist can study the cases and give the needed instruction. Often she follows up her teaching in the home, showing the mother how to prepare, as well as select, foods, helping to get the children to eat properly and to follow a healthful daily program which recognizes also the importance of sleep, fresh air, sunshine and play. In a district where a home economist is in charge of the school lunch, she can cooperate effectively and almost automatically with the case worker by improving the nutrition of the children with whom the latter is concerned.

Through the graphic records made in nutrition classes the home economist can often convince the child and its parents of the necessity for medical or surgical care when the arguments of the case worker have gone unheeded.

Where family funds are very limited, definite assistance is usually required in planning expenditures to include the essentials, especially correct foods. Such assistance the home economist is especially trained to give. She can sit down with the mother to draw up a careful, practicable plan and then she can for a time watch the working out of this budget, correcting its errors and helping the mother until she has learned how to safeguard her family's health and obtain proper food by this careful use of her meager resources.

A thorough, long-continued child welfare program usually extends back to the mother because it is now recognized that most defects in a child's health are avoidable by proper care and nutrition during the pre-natal and infant periods. In such a program the home economist can be invaluable to the family case worker by teaching the mother how to meet the special nutrition needs of these periods and how to start the child off with right food habits.

For simpler cases of faulty nutrition or unwise management of the income, the home economist can, by conference and by suggesting suitable sources of information and teaching helps, provide the family case worker with the facts and materials she needs to recognize and correct fundamental errors in food habits and to overcome the principal difficulties of the family budget.

Are you looking for a summer cottage? The Special Real Estate Announcements in this issue (page 397) probably offer just what you want.

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Speaking of the Inquiry

Professor Kilpatrick said in The Survey for May 15th:

"The name under which the books are published, The Inquiry, indicates a new attitude—a new spirit and method of dealing with disputed questions. The books are built on the theory that inquiry is the best method of dealing with those who differ from us. I think I am right; so does the other man. We should both prefer the truth of the matter to what either of us has thus far thought was true. If we can come together in true cooperative spirit, we shall both have a better chance to learn, and on this basis truth has the best chance to prevail."

Here are some of the new publications of The Inquiry to which he referred:

Creative Discussion—An untechnical guide to group discussion procedure. Price 25 cents.

Alien Registration—Price 30 cents.

What Makes Up My Mind on International Questions? Price 75 cents [cloth $1.00].

All Colors—Woman's Part in Race Relations. Price $1.00 [cloth $1.25].

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We and our patients only need to place upon a splendid lofty site among Westchester hills a simple phalanx of Spanish Mission quarters—a home for 100 cancerous poor; admirable in strength, health-devices and sensible conveniences, at the lowest cost consistent with wisdom, in place of an old wooden building inhabited by us for 25 years. Our patients who are of all creeds and nationalities, pay nothing because their pockets are empty, and we are the connecting link with their friends among the public. Give us this fireproof Home!

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From December 31, 1921, to December 31, 1925.

RECEIPTS FOR 4 YEARS—since Fund began—		
Donations	$283,242.93	
Bank interest	5,277.25	
Promised to Fund	10,000.00	
		$298,520.18
EXPENSES FOR 4 YEARS—		
Advertising	$28,183.37	
Lots	6,915.66	
Road, trench work, excavating, labor and material on Fireproof Annex, put up for safety of sickest patients	85,663.66	
Electric Power Plant for Lighting and Well and Laundry Machinery	4,215.12	
Furnishing of Annex	6,972.74	
Accident Insurance	988.02	
Covered Passageway between old Home and Annex, 200 feet long	7,460.86	
Plans, Architect's Fee, Survey	1,792.00	
Electric Well Installation	4,398.90	
Plants and Trees	466.65	
Expense in connection with lecture given to Fund by Jas. J. Walsh, M. D., Ph. D.	866.88	
		$147,923.86
Balance in Fund January 1, 1926		$150,596.32

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COMMUNICATIONS

Lewis to Pulitzer: Harmon to Lewis

To THE EDITOR: There is just about as much sense, and less decency and good manners in the diatribe of Sinclair Lewis against the Pulitzer Awards for achievements in literature, as there would be were the same attack made against a valuable scholarship for meritorious work done in the class-room or studio. We can conceive of a person declining to accept a scholarship for one of several reasons, but no man with a modicum of breeding would—were it offered him—try to belittle the purpose of one who had established it, or go out of his way to make nasty comments upon its usefulness.

Sinclair Lewis has attempted a stunt in self-advertising, in which bad taste and a puerile temper were necessary concomitants, and he put it over with some, mostly those who either had not thought the matter through, or were possessed of the same mental characteristics.

Having inaugurated a department of Awards for Creative and Constructive Achievement, which our good friend Paul Kellogg in the beginning dubbed—"a system of prize packages," I and my associates in the Harmon Foundation gave the subject much thought, study and investigation before launching it. Primarily these awards, as well as most others, are as the title indicates—an effort to give some recognition to creative and constructive achievements.

The reward for creative work is too often limited to the personal joy in accomplishment and the appreciation of the limited number of those who know the facts. A monetary reward does not once in a hundred cases ever grow out of the finest creative work—no matter how much it may be needed. The merit or potential talent of a particularly fine mind ordinarily is never revealed to the world that needs its future contributions so badly. It should be borne clearly in mind that in the vast dead level of mediocrity which constitutes civilization, creative capacity is a rare thing, and according to the finest modern thinking should be cultivated and given every opportunity for self-expression.

The world is advanced by outstanding minds and not mass operations. The exact purpose of any intelligently thought-out system of awards for literature, scholarship, conduct, art or invention may be expressed: first, to bring to light the person capable of giving something to mankind, either material or inspirational; second, to make a monetary gift, however slight, that is almost invariably used to develop the powers of the recipient. Anyone who attempts to introduce a sinister element in any system of awards that I know anything about, is either a shallow thinker, or like Lewis, anxious to call attention to himself.

Let a man fire a shot at another member of the gang, and he gets a "stick" in the next issue of the daily paper, and lands in jail if he is caught, but the pistol shot fired by a crazy woman at Mussolini is heard round the world, and the prisoner receives flowers from the morbid minded. Honi soit qui mal y pense.

WILLIAM E. HARMON
President, The Harmon Foundation

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Prohibition

(*Continued from page* 358)

now. The liquor question is still a matter of moral politics. Prohibition has been beset with a great rebellion of public opinion which is only now beginning to wane. It has been complcated by a great war, and by the strange revolutionary results in so many departments of life. It has not been in effect long enough to enable anyone to get real scientific data about it. For a period, therefore, it must be a matter of warfare, in which emotions are gun powder and words are bullets. In the meantime, social work should stand back of prohibition, insist upon an earnest attempt at enforcement, and insist that the experiment should be given as fair a trial as legalized liquor was given. It will take at least a generation for this, perhaps two. Next, when it has pronounced itself on the immediate issue, social work should take its place calmly beside President Little, declaring that prohibition is not a moral issue per se, as the distinguished prelate affirmed, but a political method to compel an expected moral result. Temperance is a moral issue. Prohibition is an experimental political scheme to enforce temperance. As such it may produce more temperance than we had before, or it may not. It may result permanently in a more destructive kind of drinking among enough rebels to be intolerable, or it may not. Social work should keep an open mind. It should work assiduously during the next twenty-five or fifty years to collect an overwhelming body of indisputable data, no matter what they may prove, so that presently when a judicial frame of mind has been restored to the people, real evidence may be weighed, and a permanent decision may be reached: a decision which, being a judgment on the efficiency of a method, will bring the greatest good to the greatest number of human beings.

Sacco and Vanzetti

(*Continued from page* 365)

AS this article went to press, it was known privately that evidence leading possibly to the discovery of the real criminals had been discovered, and that it was Sacco's despair of justice that blocked the way. "I simply cannot follow these clues as they should be followed unless he authorizes me to act for him," said Mr. Thompson. Since then Mr. Thompson has stated publicly that all the papers relating to the motion for a new trial

have been impounded at the request of the defendants and by order of the court, in order that no obstacle might be put in the way of the investigation now in progress both by the state and by the defendants. It is contempt of court to disclose or discuss the contents of these papers until they are released by order of the court. . . .

The defendants have urged the district attorney that all examinations and depositions of important witnesses should be taken jointly by representatives of the defendants and by the government, and not separately. To this the district attorney has refused to consent. The efforts which the defendants have been obliged to make on their own account in consequence of this refusal have themselves been made a ground for further accusations against the defendants.

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Survey 6-15

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AMERICAN COUNTRY LIFE ASSOCIATION—K. L. Butterfield, president; Henry Israel, executive secretary. Room 1849, Grand Central Terminal Bldg., New York City. Emphasizes the human aspect of country life. Annual membership $5.00 includes "Rural America" (monthly bulletin) and Annual Conference Proceedings.

AMERICAN HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION—Alice L. Edwards, executive secretary, 617 Mills Bldg., Washington, D. C. Organized for betterment of conditions in home, school, institution and community. Publishes monthly Journal of Home Economics: office of editor, 617 Mills Bldg., Washington, D. C.; of business manager, 1211 Cathedral St., Baltimore, Md.

AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR THE CONTROL OF CANCER—Dr. George A. Soper, managing director, 25 West 43rd Street, New York. To collect, collate and disseminate information concerning the symptoms, diagnosis, treatment and prevention. Publications free on request. Annual membership dues, $5.00.

AMERICAN SOCIAL HYGIENE ASSOCIATION—370 Seventh Ave., New York. To promote a better understanding of the social hygiene movement; to advance sound sex education; to combat prostitution and sex delinquency; to aid public authorities in the campaign against the venereal diseases; to advise in organization of state and local social-hygiene programs. Annual membership dues $2.00 including monthly journal.

CHILD WELFARE COMMITTEE OF AMERICA, Inc.—730 Fifth Avenue, New York. Telephone: Circle 9623. To secure Mothers Allowance laws in states now having no such provision; to promote desirable amendments to existing Mothers Allowance laws, to harmonize them with the maximum necessary protection of dependent children; to secure proper laws affecting adoption, boarding out and placing out of dependent children; so far as possible to secure home life for normal children in preference to sending them to institutions; to aid in the enforcement of Mothers Pension and kindred laws. States Council of Child Welfare Committee of America comprises representatives of practically every state. Committee publishes digest of laws and educational material on Mothers Pension and kindred topics. Invites requests from responsible public and private organizations for aid in Mothers Pension problems. Sophie Irene Loeb, President; Governor Alfred E. Smith, Honorary Chairman; Margaret Woodrow Wilson, First Vice-President; Edward F. Brown, Executive Secretary.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA—C. C. Carstens, director. 130 E. 22d Street, New York City. A league of children's agencies and institutions to secure improved standards and methods in their various fields of work. It also cooperates with other children's agencies, cities, states, churches, fraternal orders and other civic groups to work out worth-while results in phases of child welfare in which they are interested.

COUNCIL OF WOMEN FOR HOME MISSIONS—156 Fifth Avenue, New York. Composed of 20 Protestant national women's mission boards. Florence E. Quinlan, Executive Secretary.
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Bureau of Reference for Migrating People, follow-up of New Americans, Raymond E. Cole, Executive.

FEDERAL COUNCIL OF THE CHURCHES OF CHRIST IN AMERICA—Constituted by 28 Protestant communions. Rev. C. S. Macfarland and Rev. S. M. Cavert, Gen. Secs.; 105 E. 22d St., N. Y. C.
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Commissions: Church and Social Service, Rev. W. M. Tippy, Sec'y.
International Justice and Goodwill: Rev. S. L. Gulick, Sec'y;
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NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE—Owen R. Lovejoy, sec'y: 215 Fourth Avenue, New York. Industrial, agricultural investigations. Works for improved laws and administration; children's codes. Studies health, schools, recreation, dependency, delinquency, etc. Annual membership, $2, $5, $10, $25 and $100; includes monthly bulletin, "The American Child."

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THE NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR MENTAL HYGIENE, INC.—Dr. William H. Welch, honorary president; Dr. Charles P. Emerson, president; Dr. Frankwood E. Williams, medical director; Dr. Clarence J. D'Alton, executive assistant; Clifford W. Beers, secretary: 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City, New York. Pamphlets on mental hygiene, mental and nervous disorders, feeblemindedness, epilepsy, inebrity, delinquency, and other mental problems in human behavior, education, industry, psychiatric social service, etc. "Mental Hygiene," quarterly, $3.00 a year; "Mental Hygiene Bulletin," monthly, $.50 a year.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK—John A. Lapp, president, Chicago, Ill.; Howard R. Knight, secretary, 277 E. Long Street, Columbus, Ohio. The Conference is an organization to discuss the principles of humanitarian effort and to increase the efficiency of social service agencies. Each year it holds an annual meeting, publishes in permanent form the Proceedings of the meeting, and issues a quarterly Bulletin. The fifty-fourth annual meeting of the Conference will be held in Des Moines, Iowa, Spring, 1927. Proceedings are sent free of charge to all members upon payment of a membership fee of five dollars.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR THE PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS—Lewis H. Carris, managing director; Mrs. Winifred Hathaway, associate director; Dr. B. Franklin Royer, medical director, and Miss Eleanor P. Brown, secretary; 370 Seventh Ave., New York. Objects: To furnish information, exhibits, lantern slides, lectures, personal service for local organizations and legislation, publish literature of movement—samples free, quantities at cost. Includes New York State Committee.

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Department of Farm and Rural Work—Mrs. Elmer Eckhouse, chairman, 5 Columbus Circle, New York City.

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NATIONAL URBAN LEAGUE—for social service among Negroes, L. Hollingsworth Wood, pres.; Eugene Kinckle Jones, exec. sec'y.; 127 E. 23rd St., New York. Establishes committees of white and colored people to work out community problems. Trains Negro social workers. Publishes "Opportunity"—a "journal of Negro life."

NATIONAL WOMEN'S TRADE UNION LEAGUE—Mrs. Raymond Robins, honorary president; Mrs. Maud Swartz, president; 311 South Ashland Blvd., Chicago, Ill. Stands for self-government in the work shop through organization and also for the enactment of industrial legislation. Information given.

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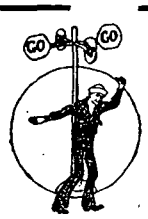

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MIDDLE or end of September. Boys' worker in New York Settlement. Afternoon and evening, or evening work only. Non-resident. 5531 SURVEY.

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WANTED: An experienced case worker for pre-delinquent girls from twelve to eighteen years of age. Address Big Brothers and Big Sisters, 471 Van Buren Street, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

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WOMAN, thoroughly trained for work with children of kindergarten-primary age in settlement nursery, Resident preferred. Position open August first. 5479 SURVEY.

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10. Associate director N. Y. C. Settlement. $2,400.
11. Recreation director, college employees. $1,200 and maint.
12. Club leader and house executive, N. Y. C. Settlement. $1,200.
13. Head worker, social service dept., industrial institute, East. $2,400.
14. Director, case work experience, girls' home. East. $100 and maint.
15. Registered nurse, small private orphanage, East. $100-$125 and maint.
16. Girls' club leaders, recreation training, N. Y. C. (4) Middle West (2). $100-$150.

Women or Men

17. Community organizers, South, Middle West and Far West. $1,800-$2,500 and travel maint.
18. Field representatives, case work experience. $2,400.
19. Personnel worker, case work experience, Jewish organization. $1,800.
20. Executive for social service exchange, Middle West. $3,000.
21. Head resident couple, Settlement, Central West. $3,000.
22. Executive, M.A. degree, supervise and correlate welfare activities in Central South city, and teach social sciences at University. $3,000.

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23. Director, supervise boys' work in 4 centers, N. Y. C. $2,400 up.
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EXPERIENCED DIRECTOR of Girls' and Women's activities desires position in settlement or institution. Western community preferred. 5519 SURVEY.

EXECUTIVE, sixteen years in all phases of orphanage activities, nine years as executive, college graduate, ready for vacancy as superintendent of Jewish Orphange. 5524 SURVEY.

SUPERINTENDENT of Boys' Home, located in the city, desires to make change to one in the country. Available after September first. 5522 SUVEY.

WOMAN, trained, experienced executive in family welfare organization. Teacher of Sociology with Master of Arts Degree. Prefers Middle West. Salary $2,400. 5518 SURVEY.

EXPERIENCED community center and boys' worker desires position as Director of Jewish community center. Available July first. 5520 SURVEY.

TRAINED woman executive, eleven years social service experience—community organization—industrial and child welfare—specialist in recreation and leisure time programs for foreign born—adults—girls. 5526 SURVEY.

A WOMAN of culture and advanced education, experienced in travel, who speaks easily and fluently, is willing to prepare lectures on any given subject for remuneration and travelling expenses. Would prefer the vicinity of Harrisburg, Pennsylvania. 5527 SURVEY.

YOUNG WOMAN, university graduate B. A. M. A. desires summer position as traveling tutor or companion. 5505 SURVEY.

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—Institutional Managers
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—Recreation Workers
—Settlement Workers
—Travelers' Aid Workers
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VOCATIONAL COUNSELOR
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Cleveland, O.

SITUATIONS WANTED

SOCIAL WORKER twelve years experience desires settlement or institutional work with children. Available June 15th. 5511 SURVEY.

WOMAN with broad experience in every phase of social work, desires part time work in New York City. Good references. 5532 SURVEY.

EXECUTIVE in girls work, experienced in handling large groups, is desirous of connecting with either institution or settlement where opportunity for organizing is available. 5529 SURVEY.

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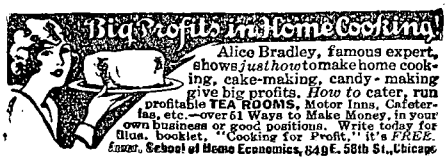
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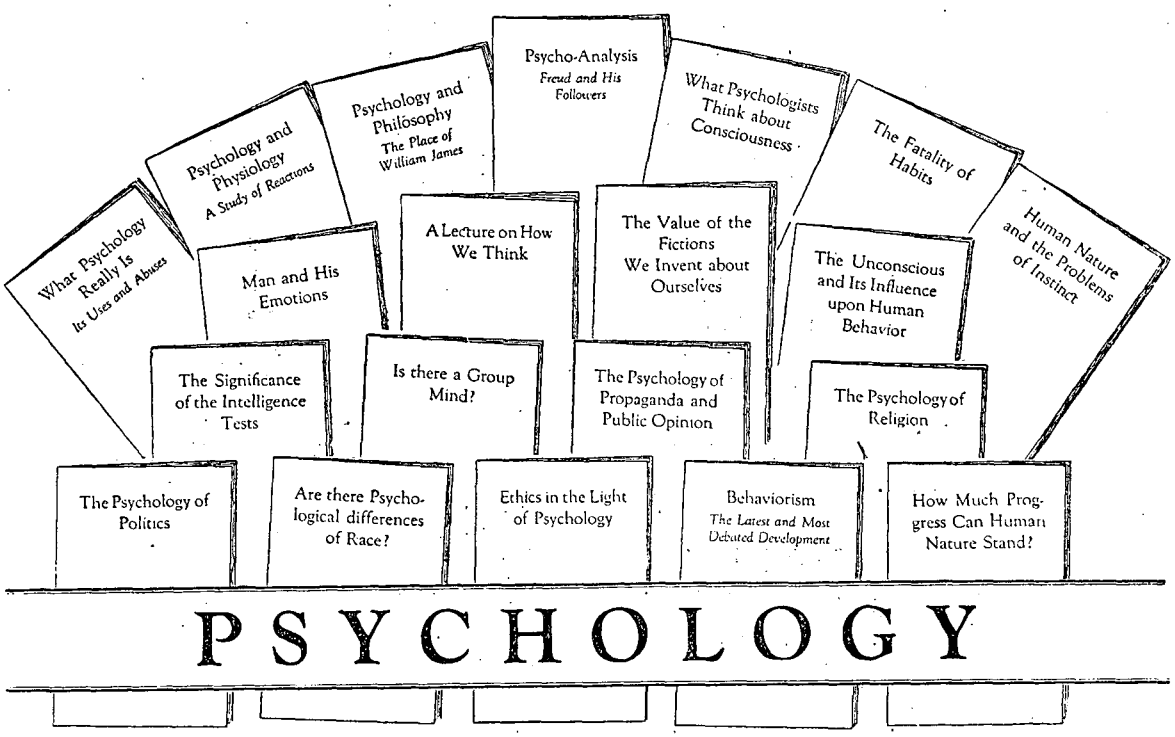
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